



Exploring Educational Psychologists' Views and Experiences of Coaching

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This thesis represents the end of nine years of work and study, from when I first started my undergraduate degree in 2010 to the end of my three years of doctoral training in 2019 and the start of my career as an educational psychologist.

I would like to take the opportunity to say thank you to my family for your unwavering support throughout this time, and particularly during the past three years. I cannot even begin to put into words what it has meant to me to know that you all have always been there for me.

To my good egg, Ed. Thank you for your constant encouragement, support, love and understanding. We made it!

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Abstract

Coaching psychology is an emerging sub-discipline of the practice of coaching and represents a unique approach to practice in educational psychology. To date, there has been little research into the use of coaching in this field (e.g. Adams, 2016), suggesting that it is an emerging area of practice and highlighting the need for further research. As such, this research sought to explore educational psychologists' (EPs) views of coaching and the experience of those using it in practice.

Phase 1 of the research focused on obtaining the views of coaching held by EPs whilst Phase 2 explored the experiences of a selected group of EPs who use coaching in their practice. All participants were EPs, either qualified or in training. Both quantitative and qualitative data was collected, through the use of online questionnaires in Phase 1 ($N=119$) and semi-structured individual interviews in Phase 2 ($N=10$). Quantitative data was analysed using descriptive and frequency statistics, Chi-square analysis, independent t-tests and Tukey HSD tests, whilst the qualitative data was subject to a mixture of content and thematic analyses.

The findings of this research suggest that there is ambiguity in both the understanding and practice of coaching. 81% of participants felt that coaching fits with practice and the majority agreed that its impact is or would be positive. 93% felt that coaching will have a future in educational psychology and many agreed that it should be included in doctoral training. However, a number of barriers to practice were identified, including a lack of professional confidence and the type of service in which EPs work. It was felt that this may affect the time and opportunities available for EPs to practice coaching. A conceptual map exploring the link between EPs' views and the future of coaching is presented, with reference to Lewin's Change Management and Force Field Analysis models (1947, 1951). Consideration is given to the implications of this research for the future practice of EPs, and suggestions for future, evidence-based research are presented.

The findings of this research offer a unique insight into the practice of coaching in educational psychology and suggest that coaching may represent a unique avenue for future practice and research.

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List of Abbreviations

ACT	Acceptance and Commitment Therapy
AEP	Association of Educational Psychologists
BPS	British Psychological Society
CBT	Cognitive Behavioural Therapy
CPD	Continuing professional development
EMCC	European Mentoring and Coaching Council
EP	Educational psychologist
EPS	Educational Psychology Service
HCPC	Health and Care Professions Council
ICF	International Coach Federation
LA	Local authority
MMR	Mixed methods research
NQEP	Newly qualified educational psychologist
PCP	Personal Construct Psychology
REP	Retired educational psychologist
SEP	Senior educational psychologist
SGCP	Special Group of Coaching Psychology
TEP	Trainee educational psychologist
VIG	Video Interaction Guidance

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter will introduce the background for this research, including the context and relevance of coaching in the field of educational psychology. The aims of the research and the author's background will also be discussed.

1.1 Introduction to Coaching

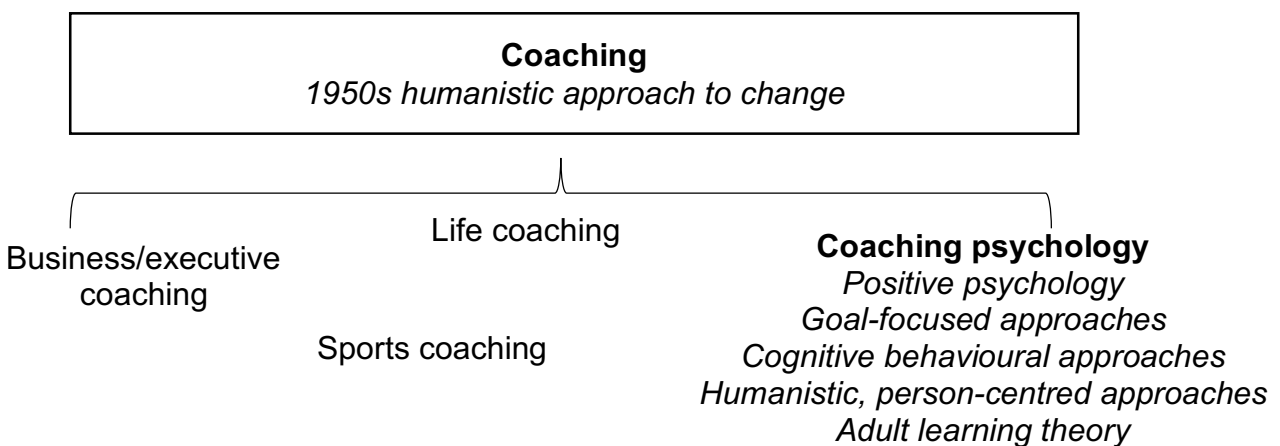
Historically, there has been extensive research into the use of coaching in business (Allen, 2016). However, coaching is an emerging discipline in the field of educational psychology (Passmore & Fillery-Travis, 2011). Some of the earliest research of coaching in psychology comes from the studies of a sports psychologist called Coleman Griffith who likened the practice of coaching to that of teaching, rather than instructing (Griffith, 1926). Over time, an increasing interest in the use of coaching in psychology has led to more research into this topic (Palmer & Whybrow, 2007).

The distinction between coaching and coaching psychology has been the subject of much academic debate (Allen, 2016) and the question remains as to whether there are clear distinctions between the two (Stober & Grant, 2006). This will be discussed further in 2.2 and 2.3. However, when exploring the interaction between coaching and psychology, it is pertinent to consider where coaching fits in relation to other sub-disciplines of psychology (Grant, 2006). Figure 1 provides a conceptualisation of this, highlighting how coaching psychology can be considered a branch of coaching separate from the practices more traditionally seen in sport and business, for example.

Coaching psychology focuses on the systematic application of psychology to enhance the life experience, work performance and wellbeing for individuals, groups and organisations (Green, Oades & Grant, 2006). It aims to facilitate goal attainment and enhance personal and professional development (Grant, 2003; Green et al., 2006). It does not focus on treating mental health issues (Madden, Green & Grant, 2011).

Coaching psychology is a branch of applied positive psychology (Kauffman, 2006; Madden et al., 2011; Grant & Cavanagh, 2007a), developed from the humanistic psychology movement of the 1950s (Palmer & Whybrow, 2007), which focuses on enhancing performance, development and wellbeing in the general population (Adams, 2015; Grant, 2006; Palmer & Whybrow, 2007). It is informed and underpinned by a variety of psychological models and approaches (Adams, 2015; Allen, 2016; Palmer & Whybrow, 2007) which includes, but is not restricted to, aspects of solution-focused brief therapy, positive and cognitive psychology practice (Devine, Meyers & Houssemand, 2013).

Figure 1. Coaching and Coaching Psychology. Adapted from Allen (2016).



As illustrated in Figure 1, Whilst the practice of coaching predominantly utilises a humanistic approach to change through frameworks such as the GROW model (Allen, 2016), the roots of coaching psychology draw from a wider pool of influence. As well as being based on humanistic and person-centred approaches (Stober, 2006), coaching psychology also draws on the principles of positive psychology as well as cognitive behavioural, adult learning and goal-focused approaches (Auerbach, 2006; Berg & Dolan, 2001; Cox, 2006; Grant, 2012; Knowles, Holton & Swanson, 1998; Palmer, 2008a, 2015). A further key difference between coaching and coaching psychology is that coaching accepts individuals from a range of backgrounds (Allen, 2016), whereas coaching psychology requires practitioners to have a professional qualification and training in psychology (Allen, 2016).

1.2 Relevance of Coaching in the Field of Educational Psychology

To date, there has been little research on the use of coaching in education (Adams, 2016; Allan, 2007; Lofthouse, Leat & Towler, 2010), with Adams (2016) highlighting that “there are only a small number of studies examining the specific impact of coaching psychology in educational establishments” (p. 235). This suggests that the practice is still emerging in the field of educational psychology, and highlights the need for further research (Linley, 2006; Short, Kinman & Baker, 2010).

The lack of literature prompts the question of whether coaching is valuable to psychology and vice versa. Indeed, Palmer and Cavanagh (2006) argued that coaching psychologists’ knowledge of psychological theory provides depth to the traditional coaching relationship. Grant (2006) also argued that psychologists who use coaching are often viewed as more credible than coaches without a psychological background.

It is important to clarify what is meant by the term ‘coaching in education’ as it can encompass a range of practices. Generally, coaching in education is typically associated with academic coaching, whereby students are coached to improve their test scores (Green, Grant & Rynsaardt, 2007). However, within the context of this research, ‘coaching in education’ refers to the following practices:

- Coaching members of the senior leadership team
- Coaching teachers
- Coaching students
- Coaching parents
- Coaching groups of the above individuals
- Training any of the above groups in the skills of coaching.

At present, no research focusing on EPs’ views of coaching psychology and its use and impact in practice has been identified. This research will consider the link between educational psychology and coaching by exploring EPs’ views of coaching and the experiences of those using it in their practice. This research will be exploratory and aims to extend the existing knowledge base of coaching in education.

1.3 Aims of the Research

The aim of this research is to explore EPs' views of coaching and the experiences of those using it in practice. For the purpose of clarity and managing the research process, it will be split into two phases. Each phase will address a specific aim and set of research questions. The aims of each phase of research are as follows. The specific research questions are outlined in Chapter 3.

Table 1. *Research aims*

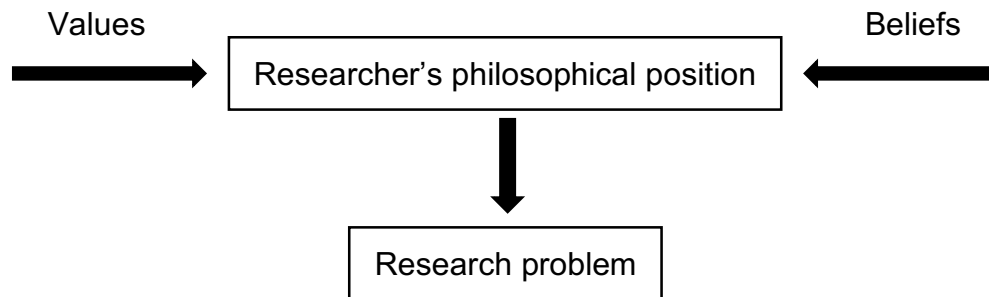
Phase 1 Aim	Phase 2 Aim
Explore the views of coaching held by EPs	Explore the experiences of EPs who use coaching in their practice

1.4 Author's Background

I am a Trainee Educational Psychologist (TEP) working in the south east of England and studying for a Doctorate in Educational, Child and Community Psychology, through the University of Exeter. As a TEP, I have an interest in exploring different approaches to practice and developing my skills in a variety of areas.

My interest in coaching has developed from attending training in coaching and considering how the skills can be assimilated to the work of EPs. Coaching particularly appealed to me as I value taking a positive, strengths-based and person-centred approach to my practice and the theory of coaching aligned well with this. Additionally, researching coaching has enabled me to explore the field in greater depth, develop a wider understanding of practice across the profession and afforded me the opportunity to learn more about coaching. Samy and Robertson (2017) outlined how a researcher's philosophical position is based on their values and beliefs and that this should determine the methodology for the research (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Researcher Influences. Adapted from Samy and Robertson (2017).



Researchers should be aware of their own assumptions and views, recognise the risk of bias which may occur as a result of these views and take steps to mediate against this (Gabriel, 2015). As a TEP, I was cautious to remain aware of my prior experience of coaching and the potential bias which may arise from this.

This chapter has introduced the concept of coaching, discussed its relevance in the field of educational psychology, stated the aims of this research and outlined the author's background. Chapter 2 will explore relevant literature in the field of coaching and coaching psychology.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This review will provide a critical account of the literature surrounding the use of coaching in education and the views and experiences of EPs using it. Given the limited research in this area, consideration will also be given to the literature surrounding coaching more broadly.

I will explore coaching by first discussing its background and introducing the concept of coaching psychology. Definitions of both coaching and coaching psychology will be given. The distinctive features of coaching compared to other psychological practices and the benefits coaching will also be discussed. The use of coaching in education will be explored, before outlining how the literature highlights a need for further research into the use of coaching in educational psychology.

2.1 Literature Search Procedure

The articles discussed within this review were located using academic search engines including Ovid and EBSCO. Due to the fact that coaching is practiced in various professional domains, care was taken in selecting particular search terms. For example, to identify literature exploring the use of coaching in secondary schools, the search terms 'coaching' + 'secondary' were used. Other key words and phrases used included 'coaching psychology', 'coaching' + 'educational psych*'.

No restriction was placed on the country of origin, type of study or sample used, although the search parameters were limited to articles published since 2000 in order to ensure that the research was as up to date as possible. Additional literature was located by performing general searches on Google Scholar, using combinations of the same search terms and searching academic textbooks. Further literature was identified by exploring the reference lists of articles identified in the original literature search, which accounts for the inclusion of literature published prior to 2000.

2.2 Background of Coaching

Research into coaching has undergone significant growth in recent years (Grant, 2014), with rapid changes occurring simultaneously in the fields of coaching and psychology (Bachkriova, 2007). This growth is in line with increased public and professional interest in the use of coaching (Cavanagh & Palmer, 2007; Stober & Grant, 2006), as well as the introduction of government initiatives in the United Kingdom (UK) such as The National Strategy (Department for Education and Skills (DfES), 2003) and the National Framework for Mentoring and Coaching (CUREE, 2005), both of which highlighted the potential value of coaching in education (Lee, 2017).

A commonality that underpins all practice of coaching is that it is based on goal-directed and solution-focused frameworks (Bono, Purvanova & Towler, 2004, as cited in Theeboom, Beersma & Van Vianen, 2013; Grant, 2006; Green et al., 2006; Griffiths & Campbell, 2009). However, defining coaching is difficult as various terms are used to describe its different forms (Campbell & Gardner, 2005). Furthermore, the public perception of coaching has historically been in relation to either sport or business (Garman, Whiston & Zlatoper, 2000). More recently, Adams (2015) described how public understanding has changed; coaching is now more often viewed as an accepted, applied practice in education.

This research will specifically focus on the practice of coaching psychology. However, based on the definitions in Table 2, coaching psychology may also draw on aspects of career, life, personal or cognitive coaching. For example, an EP working with a teacher may support that individual to evaluate and develop their professional practice or relationships within the workplace.

Table 2. *Types of coaching.*

Type of Coaching	Definition
Coaching	Individualised and context-specific intervention, focusing on an individual's skill development to help them achieve their goals or improve performance (Kraft, Blazar & Hogan, 2018; van Nieuwerburgh & Passmore, 2012).
Coaching psychology	A branch of applied positive psychology, informed and underpinned by various psychological models and approaches. Focuses on the application of psychology to enhance life experience, work performance and wellbeing of individuals, groups or organisations (Adams, 2015; Allen, 2016; Grant, 2006; Grant & Cavanagh, 2007a; Kauffman, 2006; Madden et al., 2011; Green et al., 2006; Palmer & Whybrow, 2007).
Professional coaching	Coaching delivered by a trained coach (Spence & Grant, 2007).
Peer coaching	Coaching delivered by a peer or colleague; individuals work with a peer to reflect on practice, skills or solve work-related problems (Spence & Grant, 2007; Robbins, as cited in Slater & Simmons, 2001).
Sports coaching	A task-oriented process to on enhance performance (Stelter, 2009).
Business or executive coaching	Used to address issues in the workplace. More frequently used with managers (Leedham, 2005).
Organisational coaching	"Assists people to find agency and empowerment within the micro-politics of complex organisational environments, through a structured series of learning dialogues." (Armstrong, 2012, p.2).
Academic or educational coaching	Coaching to improve academic performance. Neither counselling nor tutoring (Dansinger, 2000; Green et al., 2007).
Life or lifestyle coaching	Focuses on personal issues. The individual explores and evaluates their life and makes changes to develop areas of their life or skillset (Campbell & Gardner, 2005; Grant & Greene, 2001). Distinct from educational or academic coaching or tutoring (Green et al., 2007).
Personal coaching	Working with an individual to help move their life "to higher levels of achievement (functioning, communication skills, relationship skills, reaching goals)" (Kodish, 2002, p.237).
Relationship coaching	Coaching to develop personal and business relationships (Relationship Coaching Institute, 2015).
Literacy coaching	Skilled teachers work alongside others to help them become more effective in their teaching of literacy (Deussen, Coskie, Robinson & Autio, 2007).
Cognitive coaching	Assists teachers to explore the thinking behind their practice and encourage self-evaluation to maximise student learning (Costa, 1992; 2000; Costa & Garmston, 1994; Garmston, 1993).

2.3 Defining Coaching

As recently as 2009, there was still debate regarding the conceptual foundations and understanding of coaching (Nelson & Hogan, 2009). Consequently, there are still many different definitions of coaching and little agreement on what its practice constitutes (Cavanagh & Palmer, 2011; Gormley & van Nieuwerburgh, 2014; Lee, 2017). Although Gormley and van Nieuwerburgh (2014) stated that “there is no currently agreed definition of coaching” (p.91), attempts have been made to define coaching, including that it is:

“a multifaceted approach to learning and change” (Skiffington & Zeus, 2003, p.30)

“helping relationship, where one person builds a relationship with another with a view to supporting them to make positive changes in their life and situation” (Adams, 2015, p.5)

“the art of facilitating the performance, learning and development of another” (Downey, 2003, p.21)

“of a practical, skills-based nature, individually tailored to each person’s requirements and fitted around his or her life and needs” (Bayne, Merry & McMahon, 2003, p.106)

“[about] change and transformation” (Zeus & Skiffington, 2002, p.3)

“can help people achieve their goals or improve performance” (van Nieuwerburgh & Passmore, 2012)

Exploring the field of coaching psychology, Adams (2015) noted two main types of coaching. Life coaching focuses on developing areas of an individual’s personal life or skillset, whilst executive coaching addresses issues in the workplace (Leedham, 2005). The form of coaching delivered by EPs is similar to that of life coaching, which is often applied in educational settings (Campbell & Gardner, 2005) and, although different from teaching, it is similar to mentoring as it is a confidential, one-to-one relationship (Witherspoon & White, 1996). The similarities and differences between coaching and mentoring are discussed further in 2.5.

Generally, coaching is delivered by either a professional coach or a peer (Allen & LeBlanc, 2004; Short et al., 2010; van Nieuwerburgh & Tong, 2013). Peer coaching is a process in which individuals work together to reflect on practice and skills or solve work-related problems (Robbins, as cited in Slater & Simmons, 2001) and “is prevalent in two forms” in education: expert and reciprocal coaching (Griffiths, 2005, p.57). Expert coaching consists of an unequal relationship which focuses on support, feedback and offering suggestions, whilst reciprocal coaching is more equal and involves observation as well as feedback and support (Zeus & Skiffington, 2002). Peer coaching is often used by teachers (Jenkins & Veal, 2002), but has also been used with students and has an established history in schools (Rasmussen & Lund, 2002; Gensemer, 2000). The perceived value of peer versus professional coaching has been widely disputed (Spence & Grant, 2007; Sue-Chan & Latham, 2004), with research suggesting that peer coaching is not as effective as professional coaching (Spence & Grant, 2007). For the purposes of this research and in line with the aim of exploring the use of coaching by EPs, the focus will be on the practice of professional, reciprocal coaching delivered by an EP to an individual or group. As such, the EP is considered to be the professional in the context of this research, regardless of whether they choose to define themselves as such.

With regards to the profession of coaching, there are no experiential or qualification barriers to becoming a coach (Grant, 2006). A degree in psychology is not a prerequisite to practice; various other professions may also equip individuals with the relevant skills, knowledge and frameworks required for coaching (Whybrow & Palmer, 2006). Coaches therefore often have diverse educational backgrounds, and a wide range of approaches are often used in practice (Grant, 2006). This often leads to confusion about what coaching is and what qualifies someone to practice as a coach (Sherman & Freas, 2004).

However, the development of special interest groups in coaching psychology and organisations such as the Association for Coaching, the European Mentoring and Coaching Council (EMCC) and the International Coach Federation (ICF) has led to the establishment of standards within the coaching and coaching psychology industries (Grant, 2006).

Furthermore, professional bodies are starting to create guidelines for practice and introduce supervision for coaches (Bachkriova, 2007), with the ICF having recently published a Code of Ethics (ICF, 2015). The Code includes guidance relating to issues such as professional conduct, confidentiality and continuing professional development (CPD).

2.4 The Distinctive Features of Coaching

Norwich described how the origins and history of a practice determine how it is defined (personal communication, April 25, 2019). Whilst consultation emerged from the tradition of mental health (Caplan, Caplan & Erchul, 1994) and counselling is rooted in the tradition of therapy (McLeod, 2001), coaching is unique in that it is based on the theories of positive psychology and wellbeing, amongst others (Kauffman, 2006; Madden et al., 2011; Grant & Cavanagh, 2007b; Palmer & Whybrow, 2007). However, researchers have continued to question how coaching is distinct from other practices, such as mentoring and psychotherapeutic work (Grant, 2001; Lofthouse et al., 2010; Zeus & Skiffington, 2002) as it can be difficult to differentiate coaching from practices such as counselling or self-directed learning approaches (Greif, 2007).

It has been suggested that there is significant overlap between coaching and mentoring and that the practices are “closely related” within the context of education (Blazar & Kraft, 2015; Hawkins & Smith, 2006). Law, Ireland and Hussain (2007) further argued that coaching and mentoring may be seen as the same thing, depending on the context in which they are used.

Lofthouse et al. (2010) provided an overview of the key differences in their guidance report on coaching for teaching and learning (Table 3).

Table 3. *Key differences between coaching and mentoring. Adapted from Lofthouse et al. (2010).*

Coaching	Mentoring
Focuses on professional dialogue to support the coachee to develop professional skills	Often involves working with a more senior individual
Supports coachee experimentation	Has an organisational motive
Coaches are not line managers of the coachee	Often delivered alongside significant career changes
Unrelated to career changes	Often requires written evidence regarding the process, any outcomes achieved or changes made
The focus is chosen by the coachee. The process enables joint problem-solving and reflection.	

Grant (2001) highlighted a key difference between coaching and mentoring, suggesting that mentoring typically involves “an individual with expert knowledge in a specific domain passing on this knowledge to an individual with less expertise” (p.6). This suggests that mentoring specifically utilises an expert model (Lord, Atkinson, & Mitchell, 2008). In contrast, coaching is a more collaborative, developmental process in which the coach “need only have expertise in facilitating learning and performance enhancement” (Grant, 2001, p.7); it does not stipulate experience or expertise on the part of the coach and emphasises the importance of equality in the relationship (Grant, 2001; Hurd, 2002; Richardson, 2000; Whitworth, Kimsey-House & Sandahl, 1998). Comparing coaching to psychotherapy, Bluckert (2005) identified several similarities, including that they are both client-centred, collaborative and support change. However, there are key differences, including that coaching is “more results and action-focused” (Day, de Haan, Sills, Bertie & Blass, 2008, p.207), emphasises structured conversations and goal attainment (Hart, Blattner & Leipsie, 2001), uses shorter sessions, delivered in a variety of formats (Richard, 1999) and is more solution-focused; coaching generally focuses on the present rather than considering past experiences (Berg & Szabo, 2005).

There are also similarities when comparing coaching to supervision (Lord et al., 2008). Supervision is “a psychological process that enables a focus on personal and professional development” (Dunsmuir & Leadbetter, 2010, p.7). In the context of educational psychology, Ryan (2018) outlined how “there are a number of common factors which help to facilitate change in any form of helping conversation” (p.25), which would include the practice of both coaching and supervision.

Ryan (2018) also explored the distinctiveness of coaching as compared to consultation, stating that there has been very little research exploring this relationship. However, the findings of his doctoral thesis highlight that, although the same psychological approaches may be used in both practices, coaching focuses on directly working with an individual, whereas consultation is often more focused on supporting individuals indirectly (Ryan, 2018). Furthermore, Cameron and Monsen (1998, p.119) described how coaching and consultation are, to some extent, “interrelated”, whilst Wagner (2001) suggested that coaching sits within the consultation model; they both focus on problem-solving and working collaboratively with others. Overall, the similarities and differences between coaching and consultation remain unclear, and will be discussed within this research.

2.5 Benefits of Coaching

Interest in the efficacy of coaching has only recently developed, with the majority of research conducted within the last two decades (Fillery-Travis & Lane, 2006). On reviewing the literature, the overall impact of coaching appears wide-ranging. Research suggests that various forms of coaching lead to increases in individuals’ levels of:

- Insight (Anderson & Anderson, 2005)
- Self-direction, self-esteem and efficacy (Cox & Ledgerwood, 2003)
- Goal attainment (Grant, Curtayne & Burton, 2009)
- Psychological and subjective wellbeing (Green et al., 2006; Spence & Grant, 2007)
- Resilience (Franklin & Doran, 2009; Lawton Smith, 2015).

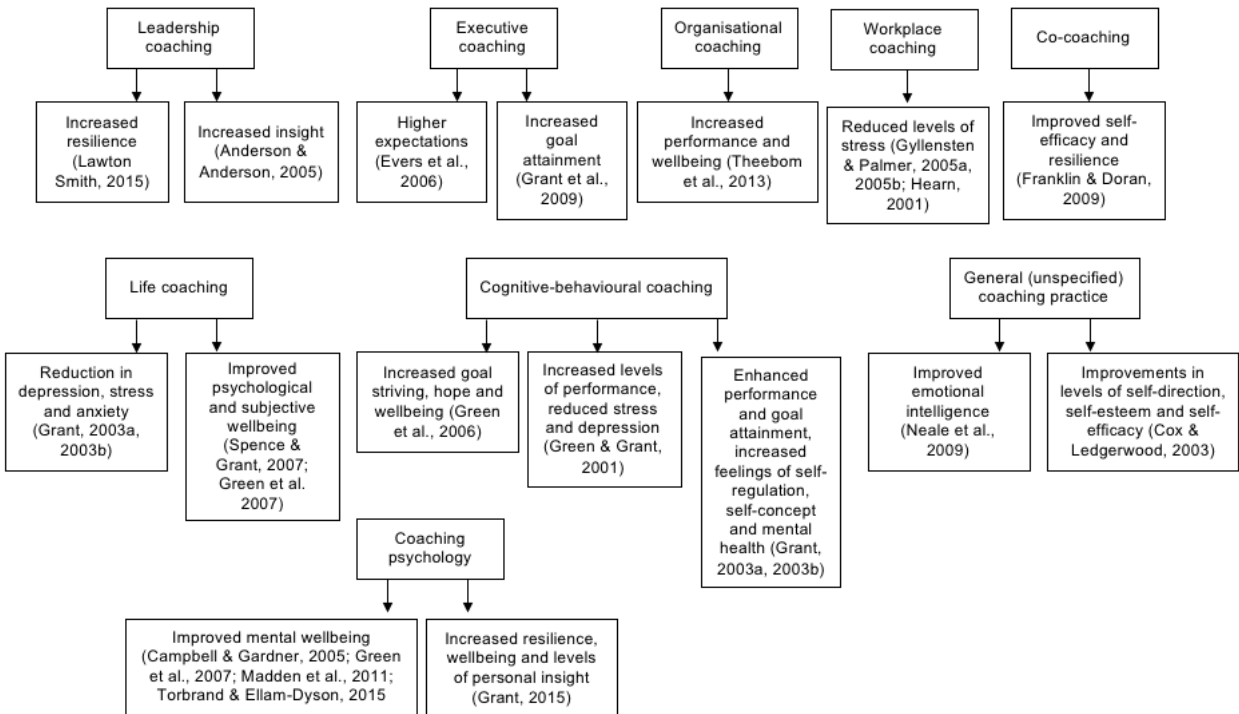
Reviewing these studies in greater depth, only Green et al. (2006) focused specifically on the use of coaching psychology. They explored the outcomes of a 10-week cognitive-behavioural, solution-focused life coaching programme in which weekly group coaching sessions were delivered by two psychologists. It was found that participation in the programme was associated with increases in participants' levels of goal striving and feelings of wellbeing and hope.

This outcome fits with the concept of positive psychology, described by Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) as a process of developing wellbeing and personal growth. The positive psychology movement can be traced back to the late 20th Century (Srinivasan, 2015) and is the study of subjective wellbeing (Compton & Hoffman, 2012). This, it is argued has evolved into an approach which focuses on human flourishing (Seligman, 2012). Robertson and Cooper (2010) and Johnson, Robertson and Cooper (2018) have since highlighted the growing interest in research into the application of positive psychology in the workplace and how this has focused on developing wellbeing at work.

Coaching psychology which utilises the principles of positive psychology and focuses on optimising wellbeing has been identified as valuable in the context of education (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Accordingly, coaching approaches based on positive psychology are being increasingly used in education (Barr & van Nieuwerburgh, 2015). Focusing on the use of coaching in higher education settings, Franklin and Doran (2009) used a randomised control trial design and worked with university students who participated in a seven-week group coaching programme. Their findings suggested that this led to improvements in feelings of self-efficacy and resilience.

Gander, Moyes and Sabzalieva (2014) further suggested that, within the context of higher education, coaching can help individuals gain insight into their behaviour and ways they can move forwards, which contributes to feelings of increased confidence and self-awareness. Figure 3 provides a summary of some of the benefits of coaching.

Figure 3. Some of the Benefits of Coaching



In their review of executive coaching practices, Feldman and Lankau (2005) outlined how coaching can lead to changes in managerial behaviour and increased organisational effectiveness. Evers, Brouwers and Tomic (2006) conducted a quasi-experimental study and identified that the use of executive coaching led to higher expectations regarding outcomes and self-efficacy amongst 60 federal government managers.

In their meta-analysis of coaching outcomes, Theeboom et al. (2013) analysed 18 studies of organisational coaching and concluded that it can have a significant, positive effect on individuals' levels of performance and wellbeing, as well as influencing their coping skills, attitude to work and emotion regulation skills. However, this was a relatively small meta-analysis which may lead to bias in the findings and produce unreliable results (Sterne et al., 2011). Similarly, Gale, Liljenstrand, Pardieu and Nebeker (2002) suggested that evaluations of executive coaching are often based on self-report data and so cannot be considered empirically valid outcome measures.

More generally, Green and Grant (2003) suggested that solution-focused coaching can help create positive change for the coachee. In terms of supporting mental health and wellbeing, research also suggests that life coaching can be effective in reducing symptoms of depression, stress and anxiety (Grant, 2003; Green et al., 2007). However, this research was based on a sample of 56 female high school students, and so the results should be interpreted with caution. It has also been suggested that coaching can help reduce workplace stress (Gyllensten & Palmer, 2005). Again, however, Gyllensten and Palmer's study was conducted with 31 professionals working for a single company so the generalisability of these findings is limited.

Several studies have specifically focused on the effects of cognitive-behavioural coaching. As well as Green et al.'s 2006 study, in his PhD thesis, Grant (2001) concluded that cognitive-behavioural coaching enhanced performance and goal attainment and improved self-regulation, self-concept, and mental health in a group of 20 adults in Australia. Similar findings were identified by Grant et al. (2009) and Grant and Greene (2001), who concluded that cognitive-behavioural coaching can increase performance and decrease stress and depression.

Research into the effectiveness of coaching psychology is developing, although preliminary findings suggest that it is effective (Allen, 2016; Theeboom et al., 2013) and can improve mental wellbeing in both children and adolescents (Campbell & Gardner, 2005; Green et al., 2007; Madden et al., 2011; Torbrand & Ellam-Dyson, 2015).

It has been suggested that individuals who receive coaching from a psychologist:

- Are more resilient
- Have increased levels of wellbeing and personal insight
- Are more likely to reach their goals (Grant, 2015).

Despite these findings, there is still a long way to go before a clear understanding of how and why coaching psychology works is established (Allen, 2016). Furthermore, reviewing these studies in greater depth, it is important to note that three were pilot studies (Campbell & Gardner, 2005; Madden et al., 2011; Torbrand & Ellam-Dyson, 2015).

The only longitudinal study was conducted by Campbell and Gardner (2005) and took place across the course of an academic year. All studies used a control group, except for Madden et al. (2011), who noted that their study was small scale and so the findings cannot be generalised.

2.6 Coaching Psychology

Psychology is “uniquely placed to make a significant contribution” to coaching as it provides a space in which coaching can be utilised and developed as an approach to practice (Grant, 2001, p.2). The development of coaching psychology can be aligned with the establishment of the Coaching Psychology Units at the University of Sydney and City University in London, established in 2000 and 2005 respectively (Grant, 2006). This has expanded rapidly in recent years, evidenced by the growing number of professional groups, such as the British Psychological Society (BPS) Special Group of Coaching Psychology (SGCP) (Steele & Arthur, 2012) and, as such, there is continued and growing interest in coaching psychology (Tee, 2019).

The SGCP was set up in 2003 and describes coaching psychology as “an emerging discipline of academic and applied psychology in which qualified psychologists would apply their skills in the context of coaching” (Adams, 2015, p.5; Grant & Cavanagh, 2007a). However, Grant and Cavanagh (2007b) outlined how the practice of coaching psychology has expanded beyond that which can be encapsulated by existing definitions. The process of creating a definition of coaching psychology is ongoing (Palmer & Whybrow, 2006). However, Allen (2016) proposed a working definition, highlighting that coaching psychology is:

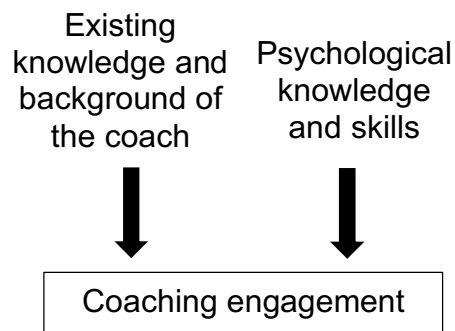
- An area of professional practice and research within psychology
- An individualized process of professional development
- Of benefit to both the individual and the organization
- Grounded in psychological theories, principles, and methods
- Practiced by qualified psychologists.

Whybrow and Palmer (2006) questioned what a degree in psychology brings to the coaching process and why it is important. The findings from their 2003/4 survey of 199 coaching psychologists outlined how, although a psychology degree provided a knowledge base which can be applied in coaching, it was “not sufficient training to qualify individuals as coaching psychologists” (Whybrow & Palmer, 2006, p.66).

Debate about the value of psychological knowledge and qualifications is also evident in the field of executive coaching. Some researchers believe that training in psychology is important for executive coaches (e.g. Berglas, 2002; Dean & Meyer, 2002), whilst others do not see it as necessary (e.g. Kilburg, 2004; Filipczak, 1998, as cited in Garvey, 2011). Garman et al. (2000) analysed 72 articles written about executive coaching published between 1991 and 1998, to establish how important training in psychology was perceived to be in coaching. It was found that, in 45% of articles, psychology was felt to add value. Conversely, in 36% of cases the perceived contribution of psychology was more neutral. Worryingly, training in psychology was thought to be potentially harmful to the practice of coaching in 18% of the articles.

Figure 4 illustrates some of the psychological knowledge and skills which may be brought to the coaching engagement by a psychologist. Adams (2015) argued that the key difference between coaching and coaching psychology is the professional status of the coach. On this basis, it can be assumed that coaches with a psychological qualification have a robust knowledge of psychological theory and would be more likely to integrate psychological approaches into their coaching work.

Figure 4. The Contribution of Psychology to Coaching



Coaching psychology offers a positive approach to problem-solving and is thought to be well-aligned with the ethos of positive psychology (Miller, 2007). Positive psychology is “the study of the conditions and processes that contribute to the flourishing or optimal functioning of people, groups, and institutions” (Gable & Haidt, 2005, p.104). Linley and Harrington (2005; 2006) suggested three reasons why coaching fits with positive psychology, included that they both focus on:

- Enhancing human performance and wellbeing
- Positive aspects of human nature
- Strengths and what individuals are able to do well.

Williams (2012, p.233) discussed the “hallmarks” of coaching psychology and highlights how its “synthesis of tools” from other professions and influence from various historical theories, including Freudian, behavioural, humanistic and transpersonal psychology theories makes it unique. As outlined in chapter 1, coaching is predominantly based on the humanistic approach to change (Allen, 2016). In contrast, as well as being based on humanistic approaches (Grant, 2006; Joseph, 2006), coaching psychology draws on the principles of positive psychology as well as person-centred, cognitive behavioural, adult learning and goal-focused approaches (Auerbach, 2006; Berg & Dolan, 2001; Cox, 2006; Grant, 2012; Knowles et al., 1998; Palmer, 2008a, 2015).

Psychologists often use a variety of therapeutic approaches and adopt an integrative approach to practice in coaching (Palmer & Whybrow, 2006) which adds further complexity to understanding what coaching psychology is (Devine et al., 2012; Whybrow & Palmer, 2006). However, Palmer and Whybrow (2007) listed 11 coaching approaches in their Handbook of Coaching Psychology. The most widely used were identified by Whybrow & Palmer (2006) as:

- Cognitive behavioural approaches
- Person-centred approaches
- Solution-focused approaches
- Behavioural approaches.

2.7 Coaching in Education

Since the early 2000s, coaching has increasingly evolved and been applied as an approach to practice in education (Adams, 2015; Allison & Harbour, 2009; Knight, 2004; Lord et al., 2008; van Nieuwerburgh, 2012), across both primary and secondary education sectors (Iordanou, Lech & Barnes, 2016). The use of coaching as an intervention has also increased (Bennett & Monsen, 2011), with Marcus (2013) and van Nieuwerburgh (2012), amongst others, reporting on studies which indicated positive outcomes, such as reducing college drop-out rates and challenging students to achieve their potential. However, the findings of Marcus (2013) were obtained from an online news article and which was not subject to peer review. This is considered an important although not vital factor (Velterop, 2015). Furthermore, the term coaching often refers to a wide range of practices, which makes it difficult to systematically explore and evaluate its use in education (Grant, Green & Rynsaardt, 2010).

The purpose of coaching in education is equally diverse; evidence suggests that it can be used to support a wide range of needs at different levels in schools, colleges and universities (van Nieuwerburgh, 2012). Several universities in the UK now offer coaching to support their staff development (Iordanou et al., 2016). Coaching can also be used to effect change and applied at a systemic level. For example, Gormley and van Nieuwerburgh (2014) explored the development of coaching cultures, which “exist when groups of people embrace coaching as a way of making holistic improvements” (p.92). Summarising the research evidence to date, Gross Cheliotis and Flemming Reilly (2010, p.xiii) suggested that coaching conversations may “have the power to transform school cultures”, even when used in an informal way, by embedding the language of coaching and enabling coaching-like conversations amongst staff.

Executive coaching has increasingly been used to support head teachers and other senior staff (Carver, 2010; Gudwin & Salazar-Wallace, 2010; Stoelinga, 2010). However, two of these studies (Carver, 2010; Stoelinga, 2010) are based on case studies and so the findings are not necessarily generalizable to the wider field of executive coaching.

In their randomised experiment of executive coaching in 52 schools in America, Goff, Guthrie, Goldring and Bickman (2014) found that it helped principals develop greater professional clarity, more effectively prioritise issues and develop their management skills. Burley and Pomphrey (2011) presented a number of case studies which highlighted that coaching helped leaders maintain feelings of resilience and optimism. However, although case studies provide valuable insight into individuals' experiences, the findings are not generalizable to the wider field of study (Zainal, 2007).

Research into teacher coaching suggests that outcomes are often positive (Allen, Pianta, Gregory, Mikami, & Lun, 2011; Campbell & Malkus, 2011; Neuman & Cunningham, 2009; Powell, Diamond, Burchinal, & Koehler, 2010; Sailors & Price, 2010). In particular, it is suggested that teacher coaching:

- Develops teachers' ability to apply knowledge and skills in practice (Joyce & Showers, 2002)
- Supports teachers to feel that they are working effectively, leading to an increase in student attainment and engagement (Biancarosa, Bryk & Dexter, 2010; Brown, Reumann-Moore, Hugh, Christman & Riffer, 2008; Marsh et al., 2008; Matsumura, Garnier & Resnick, 2010; Neuman & Cunningham, 2009; Sailors & Price, 2010)
- Supports the development of reflective practice (Brown et al., 2008).

However, several studies focused on the use of literacy coaching and so are perhaps less relevant to the focus of this literature review. Furthermore, several authors highlighted that they were not able to establish causality and so the findings cannot be directly attributed to the implementation of a coaching programme (Biancarosa et al., 2010; Marsh et al., 2008). Additionally, there are concerns about small sample sizes (Matsumura et al., 2010) and self-selection bias (Neuman & Cunningham, 2009).

Working with a group of Australian high-school teachers, Grant et al. (2010) found that a 20-week professional coaching programme led to increased goal attainment, reduced stress, enhanced wellbeing and resilience and improved leadership. This research used both an experimental and quasi-experimental design, in which 44 participants were randomly assigned to either coaching or a waitlist control group.

The coaching group were trained by professional coaches and their practice was monitored and independently rated. The design of this research suggests that the researchers were aware and controlled for any confounding variables by using random allocation, a control group and independent rating systems and indicates that their findings are likely to be robust.

In one of less than 20 UK studies identified in the literature, Lee (2013) explored the benefits of peer coaching amongst teachers in 10 Bristol secondary schools. The findings suggested that coaching had a positive impact on the wellbeing, daily practice and collaboration of school staff. Lee (2013) also investigated why coaching had this effect and suggested that coaching helped promote, enable and encourage reflection, and supported the coachees to take ownership of problems, empowering them to make a change. Peer coaching was also evaluated positively by secondary school teachers across 13 educational settings in Gateshead, who reportedly valued the opportunity to think deeply about their practice (Roberts & Henderson, 2005). Zwart, Wubbels, Bergen and Bolhuis (2007) and Allan (2007) also found that peer coaching increased the incidence of professional experimentation amongst secondary school teachers.

Peer coaching has also been used in universities in America, Canada and Australia (Iordanou et al., 2016). The process is felt to be of value as it provides staff with the opportunity to explore their practice (Huston & Weaver, 2008). Mcleod and Steinert (2009) also found that peer coaching amongst 42 members of The Faculty of Health Sciences at the University of Adelaide led to increased feelings of confidence and support amongst colleagues. However, as half of the participants dropped out of the study prior to completion, the small sample size makes the findings less generalizable. Overall, these studies suggest that the outcomes of coaching can extend beyond professional skill development and affect the emotional wellbeing of those who receive it.

Given that coaching is increasingly perceived as valuable for staff, its usefulness for students should also be considered (Iordanou et al., 2016). Indeed, van Nieuwerburgh, Campbell and Knight (2015) suggested that coaching can be used in education to support the development of student success and wellbeing.

There is also emerging evidence suggesting that coaching positively influences student engagement and feelings of hope (Green et al., 2007; Madden et al., 2011). Coaching with students is also referred to as academic coaching (Dansinger, 2000) (Table 2).

As discussed in 2.5, Green et al. (2007) studied the use of life coaching with high school students and found that it increased levels of hardiness and hope and decreased feelings of depression. Research by Taylor (1997) also highlighted that solution-focused coaching helped build resilience for medical students in America. More recently, in the UK, The Sandwell Project found that behavioural, goal-oriented coaching led to increased feelings of hope and improvements in exam performance for 500 students over the course of three years across 18 secondary schools (Passmore & Brown, 2009). It also led to an improvement in students' coping skills, enhanced feelings of resilience and wellbeing and a reduction in levels of depression. Although this study had a large sample size and was longitudinal, it is important to recognise that the research was conducted in a single local authority, suggesting that the findings may be less generalizable. Furthermore, there was no control group included in the sample. In a more recent UK study of 65 undergraduate students (33 of whom were in a control group), Short et al. (2010) found that the use of peer coaching helped 67% of participants reduce their feelings of stress. However, this study also had a small sample size and focused on peer coaching within a single year group. Both of these factors suggest that the findings may not be generalizable to the wider university population. Furthermore, the use of self-report measures may have meant that the findings were subject to bias.

2.8 Coaching Psychology and the Role of the EP

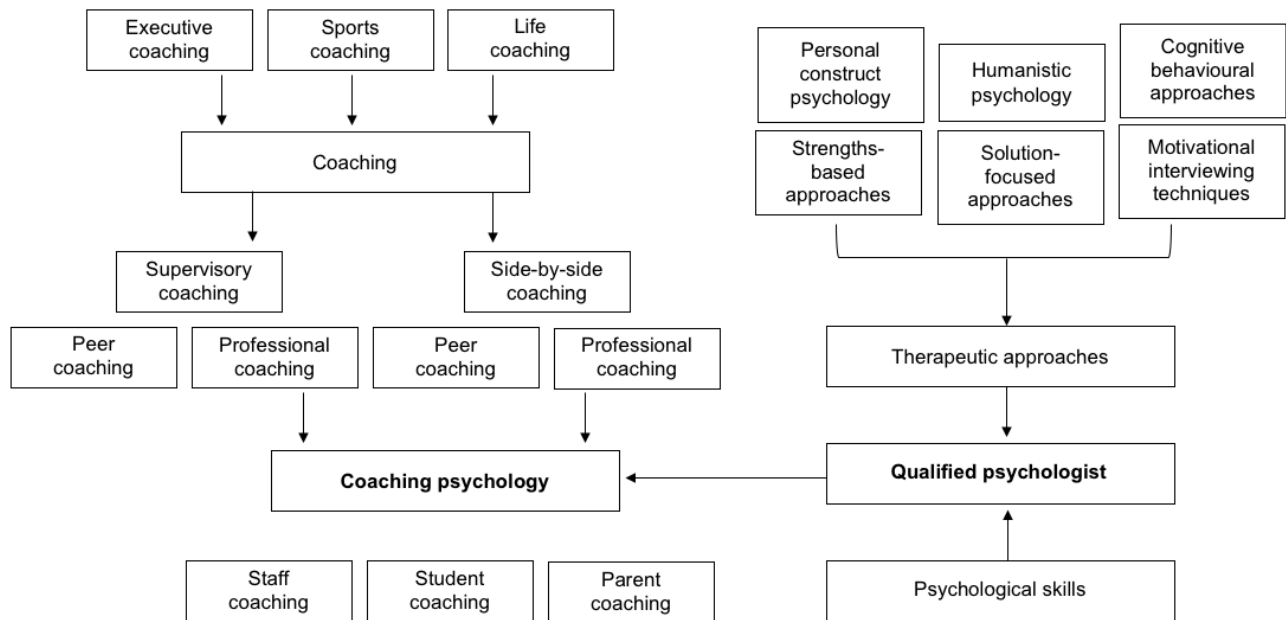
There is continued interest in the use of coaching in education (Gormley & van Nieuwerburgh, 2014), suggesting that it is applicable to the work of EPs. Cameron and Monsen (1998) outlined how coaching is relevant to the EP role as it could be applied in various areas of practice. Adams (2016) also suggested that it may help EPs diversify their practice. Furthermore, research indicates that psychologists' training, psychological knowledge and skills makes them well placed to practice as coaches (Brotman, Liberi & Wasylyshyn, 1998; Grant & Cavanagh, 2007a; Kilburg, 1996; Sperry, 1996).

However, only a minority of EPs may be engaging with coaching in their practice (Law, 2009). In a survey of coaching psychologists, Whybrow and Palmer (2006) suggested that coaching was a “subset of the work of applied psychologists” (p.76); nearly 60% of psychologists spent less than half their time working as a coach.

The title of ‘coaching psychologist’ is not a prerequisite to practice; it is not a title protected by the Health and Care Professions Council (HCPC) or BPS and it is not necessary for coaches to receive any formal training prior to practicing coaching (Ellis, 2013; Palmer & Cavanagh, 2009). However, EPs may particularly value using the title, as it could help delineate the scope and boundaries of their work and free them from the expectations associated with their role as an EP (Adams, 2016).

Figure 5 summarises the positioning of coaching psychology and how the information from the literature explored within this chapter may fit together.

Figure 5. Positioning of Coaching Psychology



At this juncture it is important to clarify what is meant by the terms tools, techniques and models within the practice of coaching. In his book discussing business coaching, Stout-Rostron (2014, p.117) described a tool as “an instrument...to engage with as a coach inside the coaching conversation”, providing the examples of the questions asked or the process of listening. A technique is the “technical skill, ability or competence” a coach has to use such a tool (Stout-Rostron, 2014, p.117), such as the ability to actively listen. A model is the journey of the coaching process, including the expertise brought to the coaching engagement and the actions carried out by the coach following the interaction (Stout-Rostron, 2014). Therefore, in coaching psychology a tool could be the skill of questioning, a technique may be drawing on the principles of motivational interviewing and the model could be the coach’s preference for framing the coaching engagement in a solution-focused way.

2.9 Summary of the Research Evidence

Much of the literature suggests that coaching results in positive changes for those who receive it. However, Franklin and Doran (2009) suggested that several studies have not produced such unequivocal findings (e.g. Bowles & Picano, 2006; Green et al., 2006; Gyllensten & Palmer, 2005; Sue-Chan & Latham, 2004), indicating that researchers “should not uncritically assume all forms of coaching are beneficial” (p.129). Furthermore, Short et al. (2010) highlighted that there is a lack of evaluation with regards to the effectiveness of coaching psychology. Similarly, Whybrow (2008) noted that “the evidence base for coaching remains limited” (p.231).

Bennett and Monsen (2011) also suggested that there is a lack of qualitative research in the field of coaching, with little attention being given to the perceptions of both those giving and receiving coaching. This could be attributed to the historic and, to some extent, ongoing calls by researchers “to focus on objectivity and rigour in building the evidence base surrounding coaching” (Ellis, 2013, p. 178). However, qualitative data could be valuable in helping develop the evidence base of coaching and the future of the profession, particularly when combined with the quantitative data (Ellis, 2013).

Grant (2016, p.317) further outlined how “qualitative research is fundamental to developing our understanding of coaching processes”. As such, research is required to develop the credibility and strength of the coaching profession (Grant, 2011a).

2.10 Identifying the Gap in the Literature

The current evidence base for coaching in educational psychology is varied in its experimental rigour, country of origin and participant samples. Research has been carried out in America, Australia and the UK and conducted at a variety of levels; at an executive level with senior leadership teams, with teaching staff, and with students of varying ages, both within secondary schools and at universities.

The methodologies used in research also vary; some studies have used case studies and, although this may provide a great deal of insight into an individual’s experience, the findings are not generalizable to the wider field of study (Zainal, 2007). Consequently, no firm conclusions about the validity of the research can be drawn. Several studies have taken a more rigorous experimental approach, using control groups and randomly assigning participants to receive coaching (e.g. Grant et al., 2010; Green et al., 2007; Short et al., 2010). Although this helps ensure greater experimental validity (Concato, Shah & Horwitz, 2000), many studies used small sample sizes meaning that the research lacks power and the findings are not considered representative of the wider population (Faber & Fonseca, 2014). One of the exceptions to this is Passmore and Brown’s (2009) study which used a sample of 500 students participating in coaching over the course of three years.

To date, there has been little research on the use of coaching in education (Adams, 2016; Allan, 2007; Lofthouse et al., 2010), with Adams (2016) further highlighting that there have been “only a small number of studies examining the specific impact of coaching psychology in educational establishments” (p.235). This highlights the need for further research into the link between coaching and educational psychology (Linley, 2006; Short et al., 2010). Bennett (2006) also suggested that future research into coaching should be exploratory, linked to theory, and consider both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

Furthermore, no research has focused on professionals' views of coaching and its use in, or impact on, practice in educational psychology. As such, this research will consider the link between educational psychology and coaching by exploring EPs' views of coaching and the experiences of those using it in practice.

This research will be exploratory and aims to extend the existing knowledge base of coaching in education. Reference will be made to relevant theories of change when discussing the overall findings of this research. For ease of reference, and unless otherwise stated, the term 'coaching' will be used henceforth. Given the EPs' qualifications in psychology and knowledge of psychological theory, coaching by EPs meets the criteria to be defined as coaching psychology.

This chapter provided a critical overview of the literature surrounding the use of coaching in education. An overview of practice in both coaching and coaching psychology was given. The distinctive features of coaching compared to other psychological practices were discussed and the benefits coaching can provide were explored. Relevant gaps in the literature were identified. Chapter 3 will explore the methodology used in this research.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The aim of this research is to explore EPs' views of coaching and the experiences of those using it in practice. This chapter will restate the aims of the research and introduce the research questions for both phases of research. The philosophical assumptions for this research will then be considered before the process of each phase of research is explored in greater depth. Appendix 1 provides a framework outlining the two phases of research. The research was carried out between March and November 2018 (see Appendix 2 for a timeline).

3.1 Restating the Aims of the Research:

The aims of this research are as follows:

Table 4. Aims of the research

Phase 1 Aim	Phase 2 Aim
Explore the views of coaching held by EPs	Explore the experiences of EPs who use coaching in their practice

3.2 Research Questions

The research questions were developed following a review of the literature as shown in Chapter 2 and based on the aims of this research.

Phase 1 Research Questions

- What views do EPs have of coaching?
- What influences the views EPs have of coaching?
- How do EPs feel that coaching can be used in practice?
- How is coaching related to, or distinct from, other practices in educational psychology?

Phase 2 Research Questions

- How and why is coaching used by EPs?
- What specific techniques of coaching are used?
- How do those who use coaching experience it in practice?
- What other aspects of psychological practice are used alongside coaching?

3.3 Philosophical Assumptions

It is important for researchers to consider their philosophical stance as it can influence practice (Kelly, 2017). This research adopted a pragmatic stance and used a mixed methods design. Figure 6 provides an illustration of the philosophical assumptions and the associated research process.

Burke (2013) outlined that pragmatism is better thought of as a method as opposed to an ontological or epistemological stance. When exploring this concept in more detail, it is important to refer to the work of Dewey, a key founder of pragmatism (Briggs, 2019). Dewey (1938) believed that the world is constantly in a state of flux; nothing is permanent and “there are no constant truths” (Briggs, 2019, p.12). As such, the pragmatic researcher does not objectively observe the world and attempt to make assumptions from a distance (Briggs, 2019). Instead, they focus on action, practice and its effects on future outcomes (Hassanli & Metcalfe, 2014). Pragmatism offers “an alternative way of thinking about knowledge” (Briggs, 2019, p.12) and is considered a “useful middle position philosophically and methodologically” (Cameron, 2011; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p.17). It is a useful, practical philosophy for applied research, promoting methodological flexibility and enabling the researcher to combine approaches in whichever way is most appropriate to answer the research questions (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Patton, 2002; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Integrating both qualitative and quantitative methods can also help expand understanding of an issue by providing more detailed data (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005).

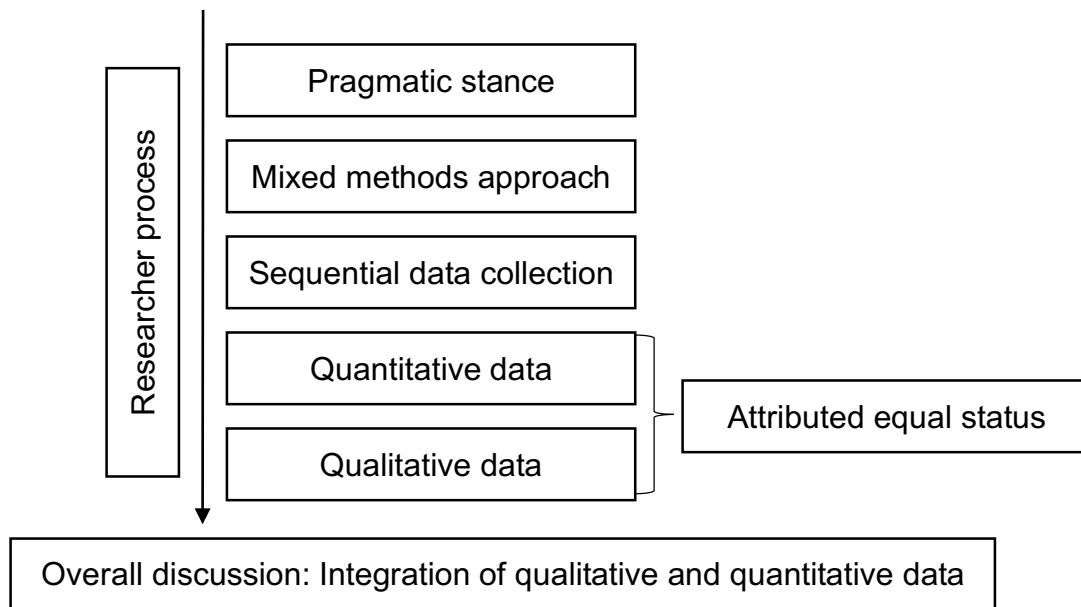
Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004, p.15) argued that “epistemological and methodological pluralism should be promoted in educational research” and described how, due to the complex and dynamic nature of applied research, it is necessary for researchers to “complement one method with another”. Methodological pluralism is the process of using a range of methods within a single research study (Dow, 2012), whilst epistemological pluralism refers to the idea that there may be many different but equally valuable ways of conducting research and producing knowledge (Miller et al., 2008).

Mixed methods research (MMR) is an approach in which the findings of two complementary approaches are integrated within a single study and is “a growing area of methodological choice” (Cameron, 2011, p.96; Schrøder, 2012). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) recognized how both quantitative and qualitative research are important in MMR; its goal is to draw from the strengths and minimize the weaknesses of both approaches across a single study. Robson (2002) argued that pragmatism fits well with MMR as it allows the researcher to focus on the most appropriate method to answer the research questions (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). It therefore follows that a mixed-method approach was chosen; the two phases of this research were conducted sequentially and the findings integrated within the overall discussion (Chapter 8).

As well as considering the order by which research stages are conducted, it is also important to decide if the quantitative or qualitative components of a study are given equal status or not (Morgan, 1998; Morse, 1991). This research adopted a sequential approach in which equal status was attributed to the quantitative and qualitative data. Equality of methods was important due to the exploratory nature of the research and the limited literature and knowledge base (Adams, 2016; Allan, 2007; Lofthouse et al., 2010). To attribute greater status to one approach over another would suggest that the findings of that research component were more important, whereas at this stage it can be argued that all research into coaching in educational psychology makes an important contribution to the field.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted as a sequential follow-up to the online questionnaires which enabled issues arising from the questionnaires and participants' experiences to be explored in greater depth. One of the main critiques of quantitative methods is that they are reductionist and do not allow for detailed exploration of an issue (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). It was hoped that the use of semi-structured interviews would help provide a more in-depth investigation into the practice of coaching in educational psychology. Similarly, a critique of qualitative methods is that the findings cannot be easily generalized to the wider population (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The use of questionnaires as a preceding tool for data collection enabled exploration of a range of factors considered important in the literature.

Figure 6. Philosophical Assumptions and Research Process



The detailed methods for each phase of the research will now be discussed.

3.4 Phase 1: Method

The aim of Phase 1 was to explore EPs' views of coaching. To do this, a questionnaire was developed and shared online (Appendix 3).

3.4.1 Phase 1: participant sample.

There were no pre-set criteria for participation; the questionnaire was open to both trainee and qualified EPs. The questionnaire link was circulated via an online professional email forum, EPNET and by email through the Association of Educational Psychologists (AEP) at my request. In some cases, personal contacts were approached and asked to share the link with more potential participants by utilising their own contacts. This was supported by the circulation of a generic recruitment email (Appendix 4). This method of identifying participants is referred to as snowball sampling; individuals from the population of interest were identified and used as informants to identify further potential participants (Robson, 2011). All participants (N=119) were provided with information regarding the nature of the research and gave their consent prior to agreeing to participate (Appendix 5).

3.4.2 Phase 1: development of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was created specifically for the purpose of this research and presented online using Google Forms. A clear statement of the purpose of the questionnaire and explanation of how the results would be used was given, as well as guidance for the participant if they had any questions (Appendix 5). The questionnaire was piloted on the 19th April 2018 and launched on the 20th April 2018, remaining open for 6 weeks. A reminder was circulated via EPNET on the 16th May 2018.

3.4.3 Phase 1: construction of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire included three demographic questions which asked about the participant's current role, type of qualification and years of experience. The remainder of the questionnaire consisted of 12 items, seven of which used Likert scale response options which required participants to rate the extent to which they agree or disagree with a given statement.

Likert scales are one of the most widely used scaling techniques (Polit & Beck, 2004) and are considered a reliable and valid data collection method (Hasson & Arnetz, 2005).

To explore research questions 1 and 2 the questionnaire included items asking participants to rate the extent to which they agreed with a given definition of coaching, statements about the 'fit' of coaching with EP practice, its potential impact, and whether participants currently used coaching. To provide greater clarity, many items were supplemented by a free-text response option, in which participants were able to give more detail about their ratings.

To explore research question 3 participants were asked questions regarding the amount of experience they had in coaching, how valuable they felt it was in practice and their views regarding its future in educational psychology. The fourth research question was explored using a single questionnaire item, asking participants to rate the extent to which they felt coaching is distinctive from consultation. To prevent this question being misconstrued as leading and to provide participants with an opportunity to expand on their responses, a free-text response option was also given.

Table 5 provides information about the literature sources from which the questionnaire items were developed.

Table 5. *Development of questionnaire questions*

Item	Source Reference
Participants given a definition of coaching. To what extent do you agree that this is a good definition of coaching?	<p>“There is no currently agreed definition of coaching” (Gormley & van Nieuwerburgh, 2014, p.91)</p> <hr/> <p>Definition adapted from those of Adams (2015), Downey (2003), Zeus & Skiffington (2002)</p>
What experience have you had of coaching?	<p>Coaching is considered relevant to the work of EPs (Cameron & Monsen, 1998). It is not necessary for coaches to receive any formal training prior to practicing coaching (Ellis, 2013; Palmer & Cavanagh, 2009).</p>
To what extent do you think coaching fits with EP practice?	<p>Research indicates that psychologists’ training in building and managing relationships, maintaining confidentiality and their knowledge of psychological theory makes them well placed to practice as coaches (Brotman et al., 1998; Kilburg, 1996; Sperry, 1996).</p>
To what extent do you feel that coaching is distinctive from educational psychology consultation?	<p>The similarities and differences between coaching and consultation remain unclear (Cameron & Monsen, 1998; Wagner, 2001; Ryan, 2018).</p>
How much of a positive impact do you feel coaching can have in EP practice? How much of a negative impact do you feel coaching can have in EP practice?	<p>It is felt that psychology could make “a significant contribution” to coaching (Grant, 2001, p.2; Grant, 2006).</p>
How do you see the future of coaching in educational psychology developing?	<p>Ellis (2013) argued that both qualitative and quantitative data could be valuable in helping develop an evidence base for coaching and help shape the future of the profession.</p>
To what extent do you believe that coaching will play a role in educational psychology practice in the future?	<p>It is felt that psychology could make “a significant contribution” to coaching (Grant, 2001, p.2; Grant, 2006).</p>
Do you think coaching should be included in EP training?	<p>Palmer (2008b) suggested that coaching psychology should be included in course programmes, with Grant (2011a) noting that this was starting to be introduced by some universities.</p>
Would you like to make any further comments about the use of coaching in educational psychology?	<p>n/a</p>
Do you currently use coaching?	<p>Coaching may be the “subset of the work of applied psychologists” (Whybrow & Palmer, 2006).</p>
If you currently use coaching, would you be willing to participate in a further interview to explore your experiences of using coaching in practice?	<p>n/a</p>

3.4.4 Phase 1: data analysis.

The quantitative data obtained from the online questionnaires was manually inputted into a computer-based programme, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and analysed using descriptive and frequency statistics as well as chi-square tests (outputs given in Appendix 16.1, 16.2, 16.5 and 16.6).

For the purpose of further analysis using chi-square statistics, the data was also grouped in three ways. Firstly, by comparing TEPs to qualified EPs (Table 10), secondly, by years of experience, comparing TEPs to EPs with 0-8 years of experience and with 9 or more years of experience (Table 11) and thirdly by experience of those who reported using coaching (Table 12). Post-hoc analyses using independent t-tests and Tukey HSD tests were also conducted to determine where the significances indicated by the chi-square analysis existed (outputs given in Appendix 16.7 and 16.8).

The qualitative data obtained from the free-text items was entered into NVIVO and analysed using content analysis. The procedure followed that of Holsti (1968) (Appendix 6), who described content analysis as an objective and systematic technique for making inferences. An inductive analytical approach was used to identify any themes and categories that emerged from the comments (Patton, 1980). The categories developed from content analysis were independently checked by a fellow doctoral TEP and, once agreed, the comments were analysed numerically.

3.5 Phase 2: Method

The aim of Phase 2 was to explore the experiences of EPs who use coaching in their practice. To do this, an interview schedule was developed and semi-structured interviews were conducted.

3.5.1 Phase 2: participant sample.

10 interviewees were randomly selected from the 24 who registered their interest in taking part in an individual interview following completion of the online questionnaire.

Participants were provided with an information sheet explaining the purpose of the interview (Appendix 7) and completed a consent form (Appendix 8) which was returned via email prior to interview.

3.5.2 Phase 2: development of interview schedule.

Semi-structured interviews are thought to be appropriate when the person conducting the interview is closely involved with the research, such as when the interviewer is also the researcher (Robson, 2011), as was the case in this research.

The interview schedule was developed for this research. King and Horrocks (2010) outlined some key considerations which were addressed during the development of the interview schedule, including ensuring that the interview questions were clear, distinct and not leading. The aim of the interviews was to gather in-depth information regarding the participants' experiences of coaching. Grant (2016, p.317) outlined how "qualitative research is fundamental to developing our understanding of coaching processes". The schedule (Appendix 9) consisted of 8 open-ended questions, designed to explore participants' use of coaching, the contexts in which they practiced, the models used, how useful they felt coaching was and any barriers they had experienced in practice. The interview questions were piloted on the 25th June 2018 and subsequently refined and finalised for use. Individual, semi-structured interviews were carried out between the 2nd and the 23rd July 2018. Nine of the interviews were telephone interviews, one was conducted face-to-face. All interviews were recorded using a Dictaphone. The audio files were anonymized, manually transcribed and inputted into NVIVO.

Table 6 provides information about the literature sources from which the questionnaire items were developed.

Table 6. *Development of interview questions*

Item	Source Reference
Participants given a definition of coaching: Is there anything further they would like to add to the definition given?	“There is no currently agreed definition of coaching” (Gormley & van Nieuwerburgh, 2014, p.91) Definition adapted from those of Adams (2015), Downey (2003), Zeus & Skiffington (2002)
In what context(s) have you used coaching?	The purpose of coaching in education is equally diverse; evidence suggests that it can be used to support a wide range of needs at different levels in schools, colleges and universities (van Nieuwerburgh, 2012).
What specific models and/or frameworks of coaching have you used? What other psychological principles (e.g. PCP, SF, MI) have you incorporated into coaching?	Coaching psychology is informed and underpinned by a variety of psychological models and approaches (Adams, 2015; Allen, 2016; Palmer & Whybrow, 2007).
To what extent have you found coaching helpful, and in what ways?	The overall impact of coaching appears wide-ranging (Anderson & Anderson, 2005; Cox & Ledgerwood, 2003; Grant et al., 2009; Green et al., 2006; Spence & Grant, 2007; Franklin & Doran, 2009; Lawton Smith, 2015).
How have you evaluated the impact of your practice?	There is a long way to go before a clear understanding of how and why coaching psychology works is established (Allen, 2016).
What challenges have you experienced in using coaching?	Researchers “should not uncritically assume all forms of coaching are beneficial” (Franklin & Doran, 2009, p.129).
How do you see the future of coaching in educational psychology developing?	Ellis (2013) argued that both qualitative and quantitative data could be valuable in helping develop an evidence base for coaching and help shape the future of the profession.

3.5.3 Phase 2: data analysis.

The transcribed interview data was analysed using Braun and Clarke’s (2006) six stage thematic analysis framework (Appendix 10) which allowed for flexibility in identifying themes within the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). One strength of thematic analysis is that it is “a data, rather than theory-driven process, enabling the researcher to describe and summarize the data in its entirety rather than seeking only parts of the data that were deemed relevant” (Earle & Eiser, 2007, p.284).

The first step of analysis involved transcribing the interviews and becoming familiar with the content. Initial codes were recorded using NVIVO. Appendix 11 shows an example of a coded transcript. Appendix 12 provides the frequencies of quotes for each code. From the initial codes, emergent themes were generated. These were then refined into six main and three global themes (Figure 23 in Chapter 6). A holistic thematic analysis was conducted to explore overall connections between interviewee experiences. To clarify the grouping of the codes, emergent and main themes, the codes were written onto pieces of paper and physically moved around (Appendix 13 gives an example of codes, emergent and main theme groupings). When using thematic analysis, it is important to avoid interpretation bias (Smith, 2015). As such, a fellow doctoral TEP independently verified the themes.

Table 7 provides an illustration of how the research questions aligned with the chosen method of data collection and analysis.

Table 7. *Research design*

EXPLORING PROFESSIONALS' VIEWS AND EXPERIENCES OF COACHING IN EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY								
PHASE 1					PHASE 2			
Aim	Explore the views of coaching held by EPs				Explore the experiences of EPs who use coaching in their practice			
Research Questions	What views do EPs have of coaching?	What influences the views EPs have of coaching?	How do EPs feel that coaching can be used in practice?	How is coaching related to, or distinct from, other practices in educational psychology?	How and why is coaching used by EPs?	What specific techniques of coaching are used?	How do those who use coaching experience it in practice?	What other aspects of psychological practice are used alongside coaching?
Method of Data Collection	Online questionnaire				Semi-structured interview			
Relevant Questions	1, 3, 7, 8, 11	1, 3, 8, 9, 11	2, 5, 6, 9	4	1, 2, 8	3	5, 6, 7	4
Data Type	Qualitative and quantitative				Qualitative			
Data Analysis	Quantitative: descriptive, frequency and chi-square statistics		Qualitative: content analysis		Thematic analysis			

3.6 Ethical Considerations

Ethical approval was received from the University of Exeter ethics committee on the 19th April 2018 (see Appendix 14 for ethical approval certificate and Appendix 15 for the complete application form). All participants gave their informed consent. Participants were informed of the nature of the research via the information sheet, which included a clear statement of the purpose and use of the questionnaire data and an explanation of why the research was being done. Information regarding participants' rights to not take part or withdraw at a later date were included on the information sheet for both phases of the research (Appendix 5 and 7). Consent for the questionnaire was gained via an 'opt-in' system; participants were required to read and accept the terms of participation prior to being able to access the questionnaire (Appendix 5). For the interviews, participants gave their consent by reading the information sheet (Appendix 7) and completing a consent form (Appendix 8) which was returned via email.

No identifying information was collected; the questionnaires did not require participants to give their name, simply their current role, type of qualification and years of experience. At the end of the questionnaire, participants who reported using coaching were given the opportunity to volunteer to participate in an interview. At this point, they were required to provide their email address, meaning that their responses were no longer anonymous. However, this was explained and the reason for the interview was clearly stated. Confidentiality and anonymity was maintained by storing a separate list of participants' email addresses in a password-protected folder on a password-protected laptop kept within a locked house. No paper copies of the questionnaire were collected.

This chapter introduced the aims, research questions, philosophical assumptions and methodologies for this research. Chapter 4 will present the findings from Phase 1.

Chapter 4: Phase 1 Results: Findings from Questionnaires

This chapter outlines the findings from Phase 1 and is presented as follows:

- 4.1 Demographic data
- 4.2 Research Questions 1 and 2: What views do EPs have of coaching? What influences the views EPs have of coaching?
- 4.3 Research Question 3: How do EPs feel that coaching can be used in practice?
- 4.4 Research Question 4: How is coaching related to, or distinct from, other practices in educational psychology?

The findings from each relevant questionnaire item will be explored within each research question. Table 8 shows how the research questions for Phase 1 of the research relate to each questionnaire item. All values presented in the findings are rounded to two decimal places and corrected to whole percentages.

Table 8. *Relationship between research questions and questionnaire items*

PHASE 1				
Aim	To explore the views of coaching held by EPs			
Research questions	What views do EPs have of coaching?	What influences the views EPs have of coaching?	How do EPs feel that coaching can be used in practice?	How is coaching related to, or distinct from, other practices in educational psychology?
Relevant questionnaire questions	1, 3, 7, 8, 11		2, 5, 6, 9	5

4.1 Demographic Data

Figures obtained in a Freedom of Information (FOI) request to the HCPC showed that there were 4453 registered EPs in the UK (personal communication, August 15, 2018). A further FOI request to the AEP indicated that there were 460 TEPs in doctoral training across the UK (personal communication, August 23, 2018). The total number of EPs practicing across the UK in August 2018, including those in training, was 4913.

In total, 119 participants completed the questionnaire for this research ($N=119$). Participants included both in-training ($n=43$) and qualified ($n=76$) EPs, across a broad range of settings and levels of experience. The total number of participants in this research represents just over 2% of the total population of EPs in the UK.

Table 9. *Role of participants*

	Frequency	Percent
Trainee Educational Psychologist (TEP)	43	36
Educational Psychologist (EP)	47	40
Senior Educational Psychologist (SEP)	16	13
Principal Educational Psychologist (PEP)	11	9
Retired Educational Psychologist (REP)	2	2
TOTAL	119	100

Table 9 shows that 36% of participants ($n=43$) were TEPs, whilst 64% of the sample were qualified EPs ($n=76$). Furthermore, as shown in Table 10, 63% reported having completed a formal qualification in educational psychology ($n=75$), whilst 37% were enrolled in doctoral training ($n=44$). However, Table 11 shows that 40% ($n=48$) of participants considered themselves to be in training ($n=48$). This contradicts the data in Tables 9 and 10, which shows that 36% ($n=43$) of participants were TEPs and 37% ($n=44$) were in doctoral training. This discrepancy could be explained by qualified EPs ($n=4$) engaging in further training, such as CPD courses.

Table 10. *Type of qualification*

	Frequency	Percent
Master's Degree	34	28
Doctorate (in progress)	44	37
Doctorate (completed)	40	34
Other	1	1
TOTAL	119	100

Table 11. *Years of experience*

	Frequency	Percent
Currently in training	48	40
0-2 years	8	7
3-5 years	8	7
6-8 years	12	10
9-12 years	5	4
13-15 years	8	7
More than 15 years	30	25
TOTAL	119	100

Chi-square analyses were conducted to establish whether there were significant differences in responses:

- Between qualified EPs and those in training (Table 12)
- Between EPs based on years of experience (Table 13)
- When comparing the responses between those who report more or less experience in using coaching (Table 14).

Table 12. *Chi-square test of independence comparing qualified EPs to TEPs*

Questionnaire Item	Chi-square test of independence	Significance
Agreement with definition	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 0.17, p = 1.00^*$	No
Experience in coaching	$\chi^2(2, N = 119) = 8.37, p < 0.05$	Yes
Fit with practice	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 4.35, p < 0.05^*$	Yes
Distinct from consultation	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 1.23, p = 0.27$	No
Positive impact	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 1.24, p = 0.55^*$	No
Negative impact	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 0.41, p = 0.74^*$	No
Future in EP practice	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 0.91, p = 0.49^*$	No
Included in training	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 0.23, p = 0.63$	No
Use coaching	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 14.35, p < 0.05$	Yes

Table 13. *Chi-square test of independence comparing EPs by years of experience*

Questionnaire Item	Chi-square test of independence	Significance
Agreement with definition	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 0.17, p = 1.00^*$	No
Experience in coaching	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 7.80, p < 0.05$	Yes
Fit with practice	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 0.589, p = 0.65^*$	No
Distinct from consultation	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 0.10, p = 0.75$	No
Positive impact	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 0.01, p = 1.00^*$	No
Negative impact	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 3.97, p = 0.06^*$	No
Future in EP practice	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 3.23, p = 0.09$	No
Included in training	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 0.53, p = 0.47$	No
Use coaching	$\chi^2(2, N = 119) = 12.02, p < 0.05$	Yes

Table 14. *Chi-square test of independence compared by experience in using coaching*

Questionnaire Item	Chi-square test of independence	Significance
Agreement with definition	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 0.55, p = 1.00^*$	No
Fit with practice	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 1.92, p = 0.32^*$	No
Distinct from consultation	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 0.56, p = 0.46$	No
Positive impact	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 0.07, p = 1.00^*$	No
Negative impact	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 0.001, p = 1.00^*$	No
Future in EP practice	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 0.264, p = 0.73^*$	No
Included in training	$\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 4.78, p < 0.05$	Yes

On reviewing the chi-square analyses, some of the outputs showed that several cell frequencies were less than 5 (see appendix 16.5, 16.6 and 16.9). In these instances, and to correct for this error, variable categories were combined in the following ways:

- Likert scale response options were grouped into ‘low’ agreement (not at all and a little) and ‘high’ agreement (to some extent, a lot, a great deal)
- Yes, no and maybe response options were grouped into ‘yes or maybe’ and ‘no’
- Years of experience were grouped into ‘less experienced’ (in training and 0-8 years of experience) and ‘more experienced’ (9-15+ years of experience).

In many instances, this process corrected the cell frequencies, such that the chi-square analysis could be reported (see Tables 12, 13 and 14). However, for some cases, combining categories was not sufficient to meet the expected cell frequency assumption. In these instances, the p value for Fisher’s Exact Test statistic is given, denoted by an asterisk in Tables 12, 13 and 15.

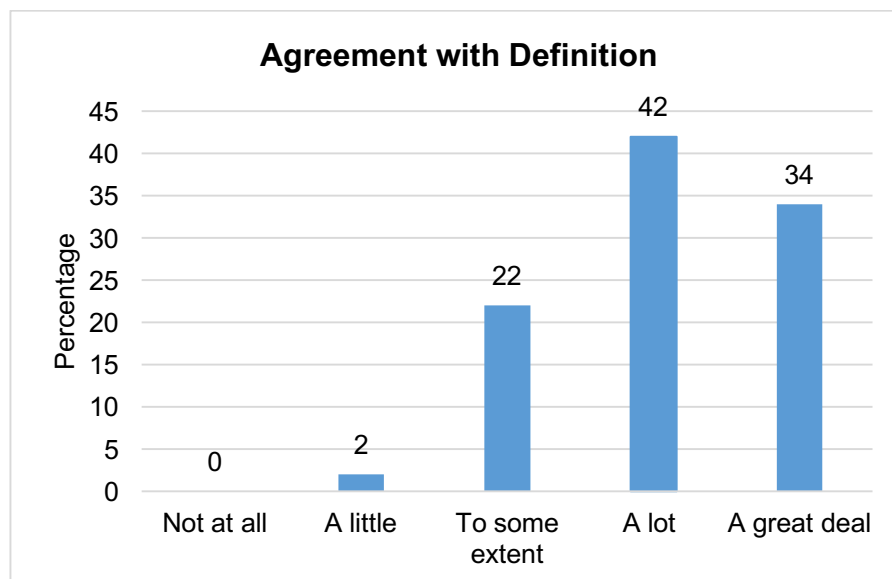
4.2 Research Questions 1 and 2: What views do EPs have of coaching? What influences the views EPs have of coaching?

4.2.1 Agreement with definition of coaching.

Participants were given a definition of coaching and asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with it. The definition, created for the purposes of this research, was:

Coaching is a form of helping relationship, in which the coach builds a relationship with the coachee in order to facilitate the development of the coachee's performance, learning, and support them to make positive changes in their life and situation (adapted from Adams, 2015; Downey, 2003; Zeus & Skiffington, 2002).

Figure 7. Agreement with Definition of Coaching



All participants agreed to some extent with the definition given (Figure 7). Ratings ranged from 2 (agree a little) to 5 (agree a great deal), with 76% of participants reporting that they strongly agreed with it (42% a lot ($n=50$), 34% a great deal ($n=41$)). This suggests that the majority of participants felt that the definition accurately reflected their views and understanding of coaching. However, no significant differences were found when comparing participants by qualification, years of experience or experience in using coaching.

Content analysis of the qualitative comments regarding this item showed that, of the 105 participants who shared their thoughts, 70 agreed with the definition. 9 felt it was too general, 11 were unsure and 15 felt that the definition could be amended in some way (Table 15).

Table 15. *Content analysis of the categories arising from analysis of participants' agreement with the given definition of coaching*

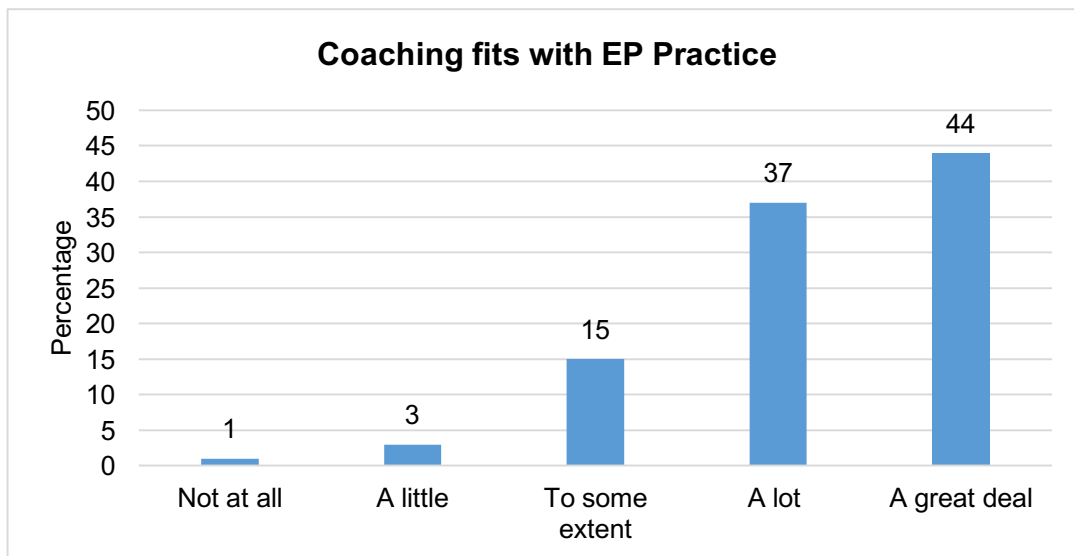
Category	Frequency of Responses	Example Quotation
Agree with definition	70 (67%)	<p>"It sounds similar to what I imagine coaching to be"</p> <p>"It seems broad enough that it could encompass a range of techniques, styles and variations in the focus of coaching"</p>
Definition is too general	9 (9%)	<p>"I feel this could apply to any helping relationship if the term 'coachee' was removed"</p> <p>"There are many forms of relationships which aim at the same or similar things"</p>
Definition could be amended	15 (14%)	<p>"Coaching can be effective without a formerly established relationship"</p> <p>"It would be helpful if the terms 'non-judgmental' and client-led' were mentioned"</p>
Unsure	11 (10%)	<p>"I don't really know well enough to say either way"</p> <p>"I am still learning about coaching"</p>
N = 105 (100%)		

However, it is interesting to note that across responses, there was some uncertainty, which could be associated with participants' levels of experience. One participant described how the definition "sounds similar to what I imagine coaching to be", whilst another stated that they weren't sure as they are "still learning about coaching". Participants' levels of experience are explored in more detail in 4.3.

4.2.2 Fit with practice.

Overall, 81% of participants felt that coaching fits with EP practice (37% a lot ($n=44$), 44% a great deal ($n=52$)) (Figure 8). Only 5 participants (4%) felt that there was little or no place for coaching in practice.

Figure 8. Coaching's 'fit' with EP Practice



Chi-square analysis showed, compared to TEPs, qualified EPs felt that coaching fits more with practice. However, as the analysis showed that 2 cells had expected cell count of less than 5, the Fisher's Exact Test of significance is reported ($\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 4.35$, exact $p < 0.05$) (see Figure 9, Table 10 and Appendix 16.6 for outputs). This result may reflect a greater level of understanding amongst qualified EPs, as it is likely that TEPs are still learning about practice and therefore do not have the breadth of knowledge to make a clear distinction about the 'fit' of coaching. No significant differences were found when comparing participants by years of experience or experience in coaching (Table 11 and 12). However, 58% of EPs with 9 to 15+ years of experience reported feeling that coaching fits 'a great deal' with EP practice, whilst only 35% of those in training gave the same rating (Figure 10). This may suggest that EPs with more experience perceived coaching to fit more with practice. It may also be the case that these EPs have a more advanced knowledge of practice and therefore are more clearly able to articulate how alternative practices can be synthesised with the more traditional aspects of the EP role.

Figure 9. Coaching's 'fit' with EP Practice, grouped by qualification

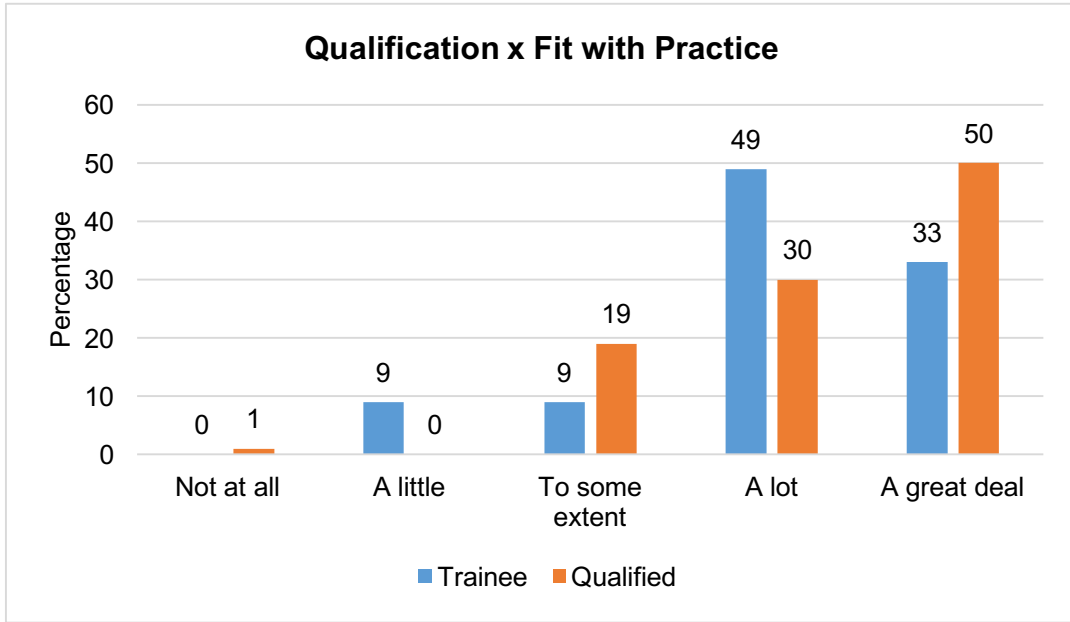
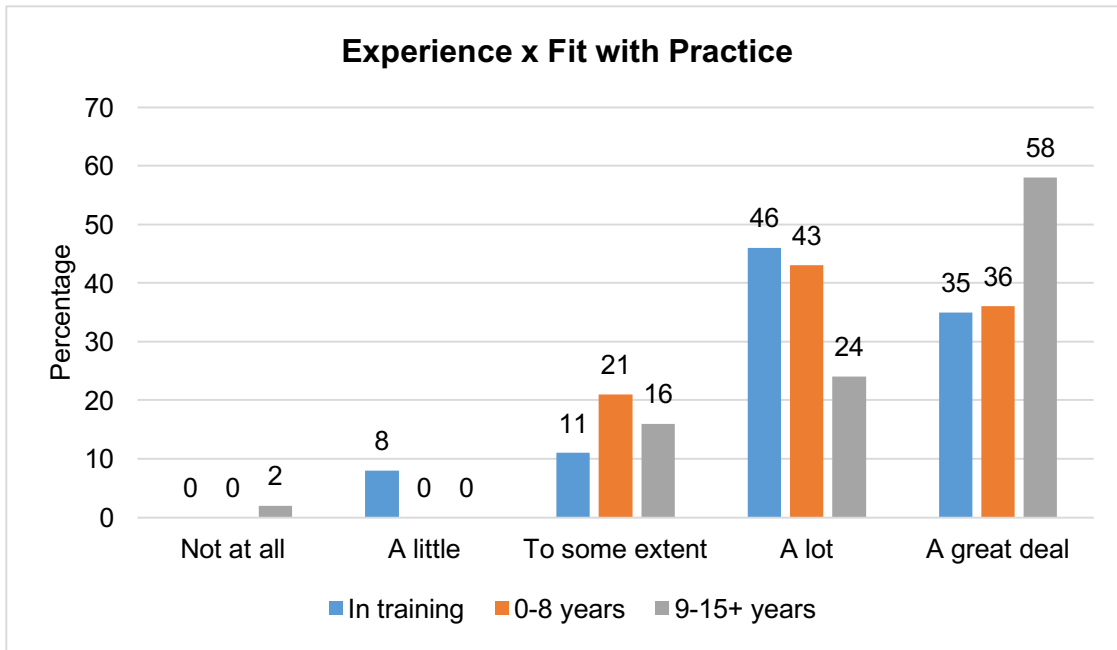


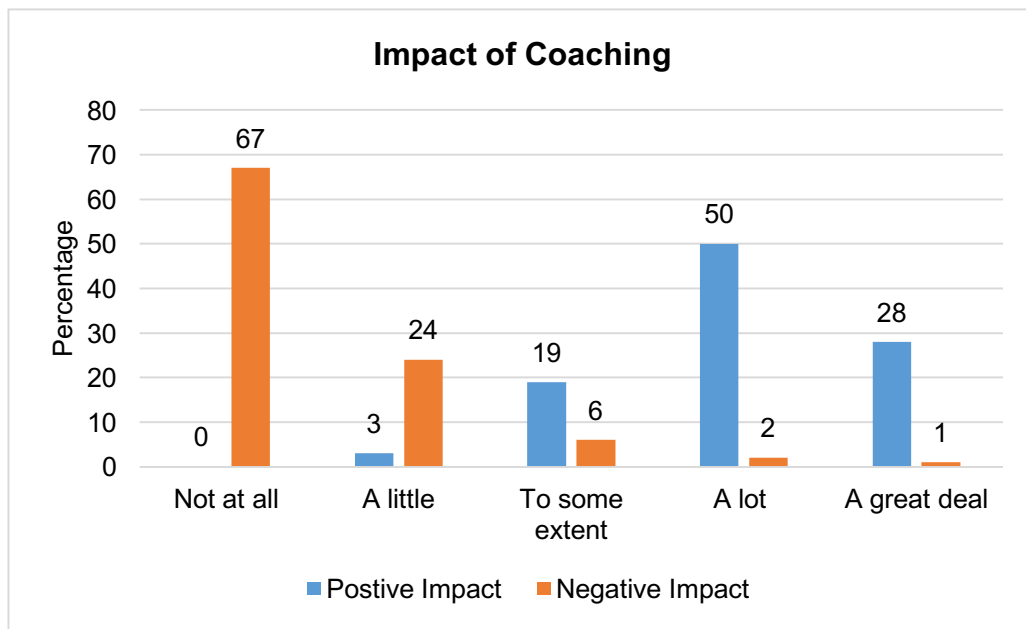
Figure 10. Coaching fits with EP Practice, grouped by years of experience



4.2.3 Impact of coaching in practice.

There appears to be a negative association between participants' ratings of the impact of coaching; participants rated its likely positive impact highly and the negative impact as very low (Figure 11). Overall, 79% ($n=93$) of participants strongly felt that coaching could have a lot or a great deal of positive impact in practice, whilst 91% ($n=108$) felt there would be little or no negative impact. The range of ratings for whether participants felt coaching could have a positive impact in practice varied from 2 (a little) to 5 (a great deal). No participants gave a rating of 1, suggesting that all participants felt that coaching could have some positive impact, to a greater or lesser extent.

Figure 11. Perceived Impact of Coaching



No significant differences were found when comparing participants by qualification, years of experience or experience in using coaching. However, participants who rated themselves as being less experienced in coaching (having no, little or some experience) rated the positive impact of coaching less highly ($M = 3.90$, $SD = 0.72$). In contrast, those who had "a lot" or "a great deal" of experience in coaching rated the positive impact more highly ($M = 4.44$, $SD = 0.76$).

Figure 12. Perceived Impact of Coaching, grouped by qualification

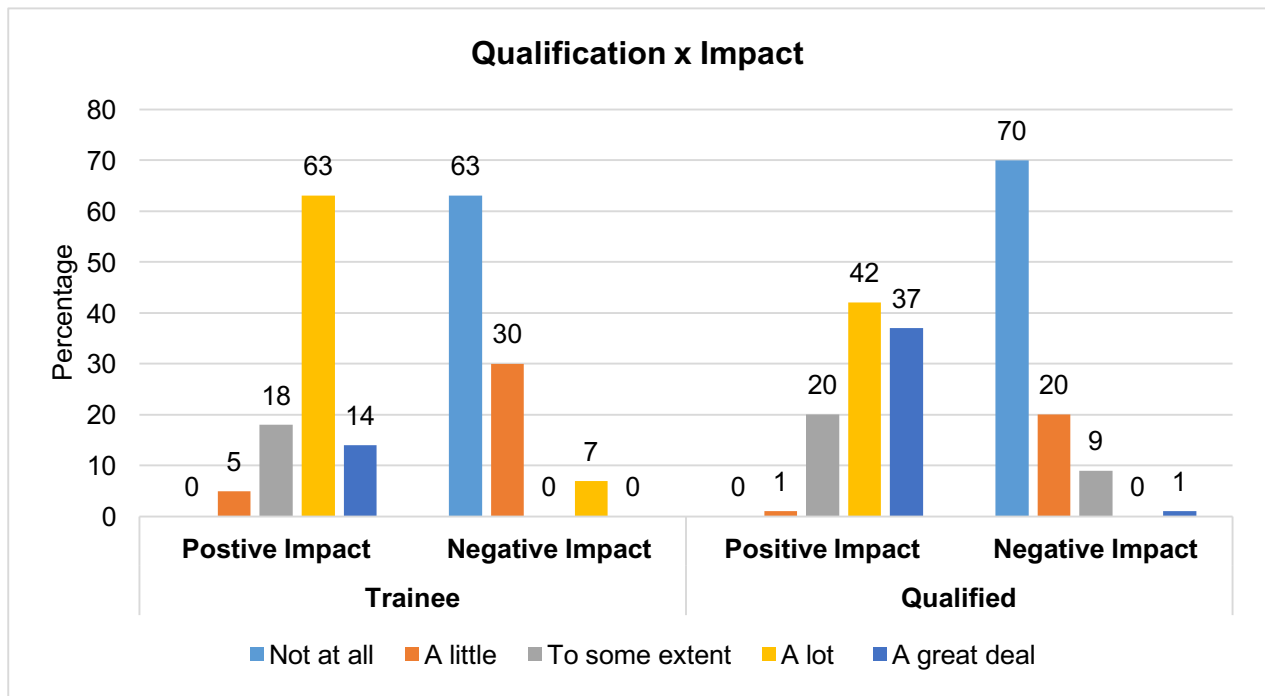


Figure 12 suggests that qualified EPs felt coaching may have a positive impact in practice (79% total: 42% a lot ($n=32$), 37% a great deal ($n=28$)). This should be considered in conjunction with qualified EPs' ratings of the likely negative impact of coaching as being not at all (70%, $n=53$) or a little (20%, $n=15$). TEPs were also less willing to rate coaching as having a strong positive impact (14% 'a great deal' ($n=6$)) compared to qualified EPs. Qualified EPs' mean rating of the positive impact of coaching was 4.1 "a lot" ($SD = 0.78$), whilst the mean rating of TEPs was 3.8 'to some extent' ($SD = 0.71$).

Figure 13. Perceived Negative Impact of Coaching, grouped by years of experience

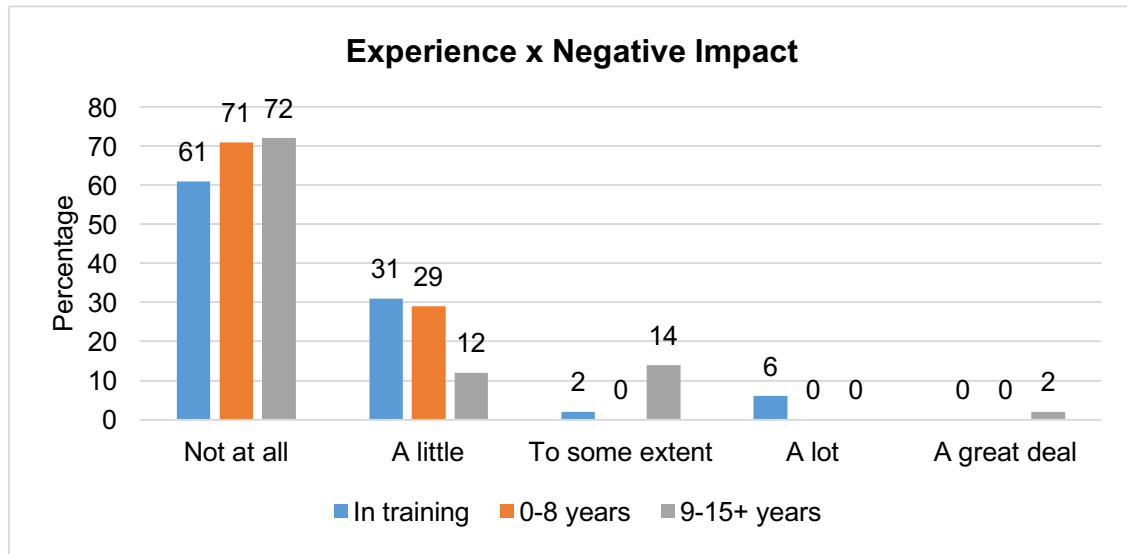


Figure 13 also shows that 6% (n=3) of EPs in training felt coaching could have ‘a lot’ of negative impact, whilst 9% (n=7) of qualified EPs felt there would be a negative impact ‘to some extent’. This may reflect greater awareness of the potential barriers and challenges in practice amongst EPs in training, who may be cautious about introducing novel practices into their work.

Content analysis of the qualitative comments regarding whether coaching is perceived as a valuable addition to practice is shown in Table 16. Coaching was described by 3 participants as a unique addition to practice, whilst the majority (n=30) indicated that coaching was an additional tool or set of skills which could be offered in practice. A further 12 participants described coaching as something which was implicit in practice; one participant stated that “many of us do this [coaching] automatically”, whilst another outlined how coaching is “just part of the process of what we do”. Several barriers were identified. 8 participants felt it could be confusing if coaching was used as part of consultation as it “may not add anything” to practice. Time was also cited as a barrier by a further 5 participants, as well as the conceptualisation of coaching as an “expert” model, which highlighted the need for coaching to be implemented carefully.

Table 16. *Content analysis of the categories arising from analysis of whether participants viewed coaching as a valuable addition to practice*

Category	Frequency of Responses	Example Quotation
Already implicitly use coaching approaches	12 (21%)	“I think many of us do this automatically...” “...just part of the process of what we do.”
Coaching is an additional tool or set of skills which can be offered	27 (47%)	“It is another aspect of our role to offer, different to individual casework and broadens the role.” “One of many tools available to the EP”
Coaching would be a unique addition	3 (5%)	“...life would be too dull otherwise!” “I think it can contribute to an EP’s unique contribution compared to other professionals in schools.”
Coaching needs to be used carefully	3 (5%)	“A productive tool when used carefully and appropriately with full, informed consent” “I worry that it promotes a move towards an expert model...a coach can often take on a status which is in conflict with collaborative working.”
Coaching would be a confusing addition	8 (14%)	“It provides an extension to consultation...” “If EPs are using these skills in consultation then it may not add anything to their practice”
Time constraints	5 (8%)	“...don’t always have time/capacity to deliver ongoing packages of support...” “...it would require more time than we have available.”
N = 58 (100%)		

Content analysis of the qualitative comments regarding the view of coaching as a negative addition to practice is shown in Table 17. 65 of 100 participants felt that coaching would not be a negative addition. Again, it was highlighted that coaching needs to be carried out in a sensitive manner, with EPs using coaching skills “as and when appropriate”. Time was again cited as a constraining factor, whilst it was highlighted by 9 participants that coaching needs to be understood, both by the EP and the coachee.

There were also some concerns about managing the boundaries of the EP-coach role; with one participant stating how they felt coaching “may begin to blur the boundaries of our profession”.

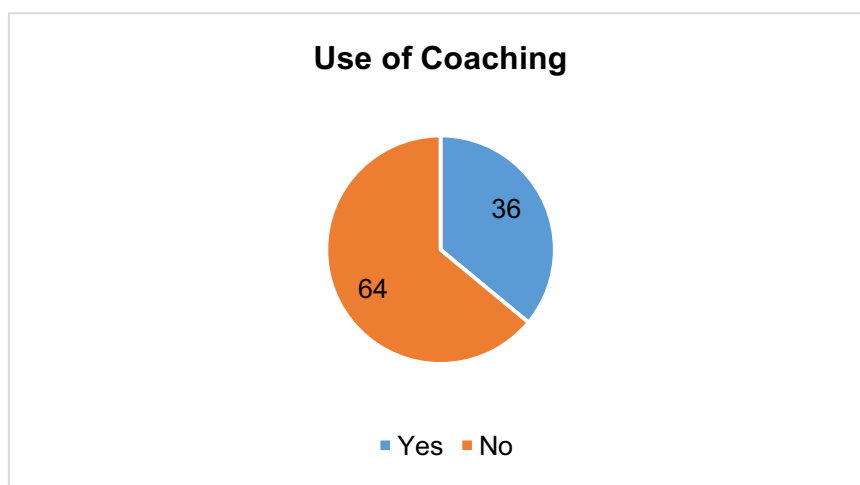
Table 17. *Content analysis of the categories arising from analysis of whether participants viewed coaching as a negative addition to practice*

Category	Frequency of Responses	Example Quotation
It is not a negative addition	65 (65%)	“I don’t see how any evidence based psychological approaches to EP work could be negative” “It is essential to practice”
Other approaches may be more appropriate	6 (6%)	“Perhaps there are times when a more direct approach is required” “I feel different people require different approaches”
Coaching needs to be understood	9 (9%)	“As with any psychological technique EPs employ, it has to be used mindfully and appropriately...” “Unless the relationship is clear...there could be confusion”
Time	7 (7%)	“I think it could be helpful but unrealistic (time-wise)” “The skills can be used in other areas even if coaching itself isn’t appropriate (e.g. because of time limitations)”
Boundaries of the role	5 (5%)	“I wonder if there is a risk that the power dynamic between the coach and coachee would contradict the values associated with the role of the EP” “It may begin to blur the lines of our profession...” “If coaching were added to the services offered by EPs this will further stretch the already wide breadth of skills which could make the role even more difficult...”
Coaching needs to be done sensitively	8 (8%)	“Potentially negative if EPs were only to use a coaching approach...” “I don’t think having additional skills and strategies would be harmful...it would be down to the EP to use them as and when appropriate”
N = 100 (100%)		

4.2.4 Use of coaching.

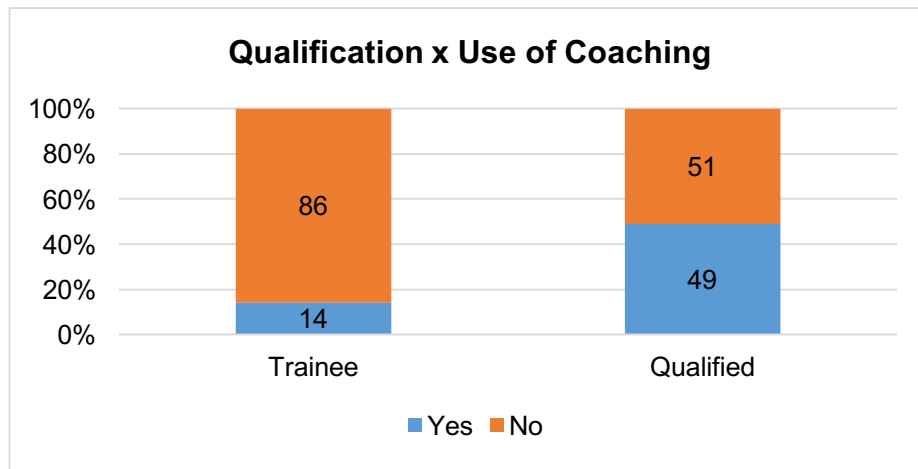
Participants were also asked about their use of coaching. 64% ($n=76$) of participants reported not using coaching in their practice (Figure 14). 36% ($n=43$) said that they use coaching, but only 27% ($n=32$) reported 'a lot' or 'a great deal' of experience (Figure 18). This suggests that coaching is being used, but amongst those who are using it, there may be a lack of experience and professional confidence.

Figure 14. Participants' Use of Coaching



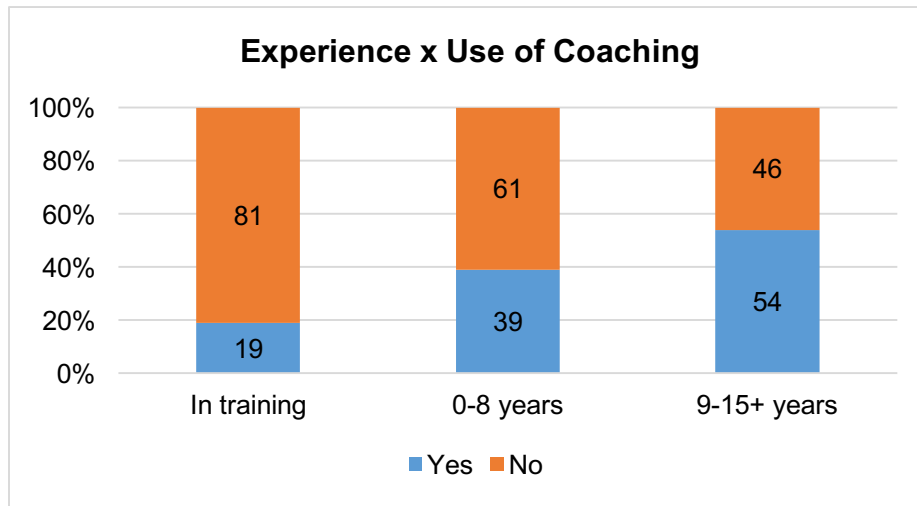
Further analysis highlighted a significant difference in the use of coaching between TEPs and qualified EPs (Figure 15); 49% ($n=37$) of EPs used coaching, compared to only 14% ($n=6$) of TEPs: $\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 14.35, p < 0.05$ (see Table 10 and Appendix 16.6 for outputs). Qualified EPs' mean rating was 1.51 ($SD = 0.50$), whilst the mean rating for TEPs was 1.86 ($SD = 0.35$). An independent samples t-test showed that this difference was also significant, $t(117) = 4.41, p < 0.05$, illustrating that fewer TEPs use coaching (see Appendix 16.7 for outputs). This may reflect the need for TEPs to focus on learning core skills and meeting the competencies required for successful qualification, which may limit their ability to engage in other practices.

Figure 15. Participants' Use of Coaching, grouped by qualification



A significant difference was also found depending on participants' years of experience (Figure 16), $\chi^2(2, N = 119) = 12.02, p < 0.05$ (see Table 11 and Appendix 16.5). Over half (54%, $n=23$) of EPs with more than 9 years of experience reported using coaching, compared to only 39% ($n=11$) of EPs with 0-8 years' experience and 19% ($n=9$) of those in training (see Appendix 16.3 for outputs). Post-hoc Tukey HSD tests indicated that EPs in training ($M = 1.8, SD = 0.39$) used coaching significantly less ($p < 0.05$) than those with more than 9 years of experience ($M = 1.47, SD = 0.50$) (see Appendix 16.8 for outputs). This suggests that more experienced EPs feel more confident engaging in practices beyond those which would be typically associated with the work of EPs. It is also likely that more experienced EPs are in more senior roles and so may have greater professional autonomy to practice in a more diverse way.

Figure 16. Participants' Use of Coaching, grouped by years of experience



4.2.5 Summary of findings.

Overall, the findings show that:

- All participants agreed with the definition of coaching given; 76% strongly agreed.
- There was some uncertainty about the definition of coaching which could be linked to participants' levels of experience.
- 81% of participants felt that coaching fits with EP practice; only 4% felt that there was little or no place for coaching in practice.
- Compared to the views of TEPs, qualified EPs felt that coaching fits more with practice.
- Coaching was described by 3 participants as a unique addition to practice, whilst 30 participants indicated that coaching was an additional tool or set of skills which could be offered. A further 12 participants described coaching as something which was implicit in their practice.
- Several barriers to coaching were identified: 8 participants felt it could be confusing. Time was also cited as a barrier by 5 participants, as well as the conceptualisation of coaching as an "expert" model, which highlights the need for coaching to be implemented carefully.
- 65% of participants felt that coaching would not be a negative addition to practice.

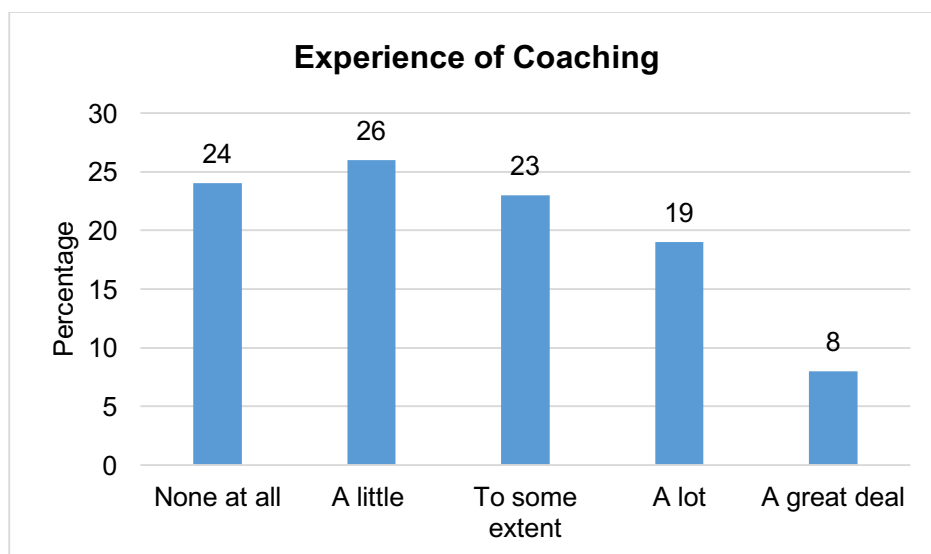
- Coaching needs to be used sensitively, with EPs using coaching skills “as and when appropriate”. Time was again cited as a constraining factor, whilst it was highlighted by 9 participants that coaching needs to be clearly understood, both by the EP and the coachee. There were also some concerns about managing the boundaries of the EP-coach role.
- There was a negative association between participants’ ratings of the impact coaching; participants rated the likely positive impact highly, and the negative impact as very low.
- 79% of participants strongly felt that coaching could have a lot or a great deal of positive impact in practice; 91% felt there would be little or no negative impact.
- Qualified EPs felt coaching would have a positive impact in practice, with 90% rating that there would be very little or no potential negative impact.
- Compared to qualified EPs, TEPs were less willing to rate coaching as having a strong positive impact; 7% felt coaching could have ‘a lot’ of negative impact.
- 64% of participants did not use coaching; 36% used coaching, but only 27% reported having ‘a lot’ or ‘a great deal’ of experience.
- 49% of EPs reportedly use coaching, compared to only 14% of TEPs.
- Over half (54%) of EPs with more than 9 years of experience used coaching, compared to only 39% of EPs with 0-8 years’ experience and 19% of those in training.

4.3 Research Question 3: How do EPs feel that coaching can be used in practice?

4.3.1 Experience of coaching.

Participants were asked to rate their level of experience in coaching. Overall, 50% ($n=59$) of participants reported having little or no experience (Figure 17). There was a standard deviation of 1.3 ($SD = 1.25$) suggesting that responses varied and that amongst participants there was a range of experience.

Figure 17. Participants' Experience of Coaching



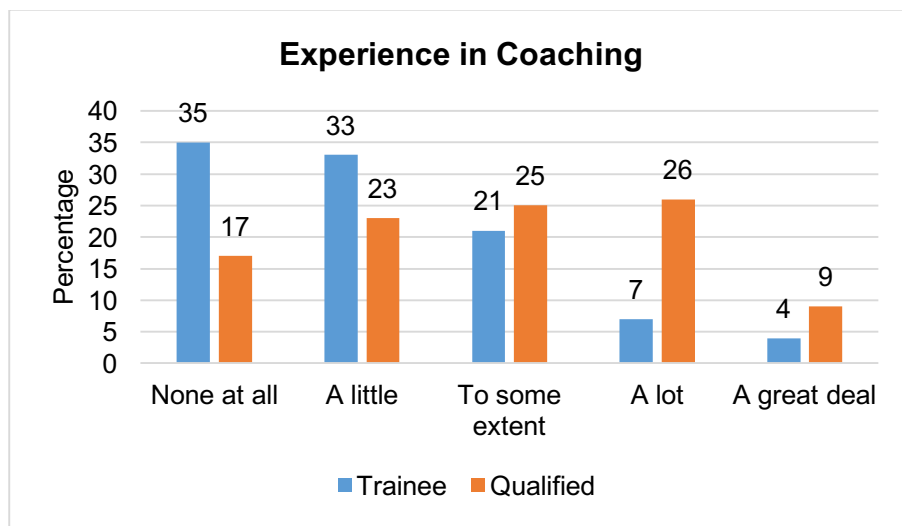
Content analysis of the qualitative comments regarding participants' experience of coaching was as follows (Table 18). Of the 98 participants who provided a comment, 16 described themselves as having no experience of coaching. 27 used coaching in schools, with staff, students and parents as well as other colleagues. 15 used coaching in a non-specific manner and did not refer to the groups worked with. A further 20 participants referred to specific training experiences, although there was wide variation in the nature of training received. 14 EPs used coaching as a supervisory tool or as part of consultation. 6 participants described having been coached in previous roles.

Table 18. *Content analysis of participants' experience of coaching*

Category	Frequency of Responses	Example Quotation
No experience or training in coaching	16 (16%)	"I haven't had training on it or anything but it seems similar to consultation which I try to practice when I can"
Specific training experience	20 (20%)	"On my way to completing the ILM Level 5 Certificate in Coaching and Mentoring..."
		"10-week course"
		"Attended a half-day training"
Coaching in schools	27 (27%)	"2 lectures at university"
		"I feel coaching is a central part of our role, especially empowering staff to make positive changes..."
		"I use solution-focused teacher coaching and have developed a model for solution-focused student coaching"
Use coaching (unspecified)	15 (15%)	"I use coaching as a central part of my work with colleagues, school staff, parents and children/young people"
		"Used coaching through approaches like motivational interviewing, but not in explicit ways"
		"Over 650 hours of direct coaching experience"
Coaching as a supervisory tool	7 (7%)	"All my interactions are of a coaching nature but were not called coaching"
		"I use coaching in supervision"
Coaching as a supervisory tool	7 (7%)	"I provide supervision to a number of professionals but I am not sure whether this matches formal definitions of coaching. I refer to it as supervision instead."
Consultation and coaching	7 (7%)	"I would see all my ongoing consultation work as coaching"
Received coaching	6 (6%)	"I have been a coachee in my current and previous posts and I have received training in coaching as a manager"
N = 98 (100%)		

Further chi-square analysis found a significant difference when comparing the responses of TEPs to those of qualified EPs $\chi^2(2, N = 119) = 8.37, p < 0.05$ (see Table 12 and Appendix 16.6 for outputs). Qualified EPs reported more experience in coaching compared to TEPs (Figure 18); 35% ($n=15$) of TEPs had no experience compared to 17% ($n=13$) of qualified EPs. Furthermore, 26% ($n=20$) of EPs reported ‘a lot’ of experience, whilst only 7% ($n=3$) of TEPs gave the same rating (see Appendix 16.4 for outputs). Qualified EPs’ mean rating of their experience was 2.88 ($SD = 1.24$), whilst the mean rating for TEPs was 2.1 ($SD = 1.13$). An independent samples t-test showed that the difference between the mean scores was significant, $t(117) = 3.24, p < 0.05$ (see Appendix 16.7 for outputs). These results are in line with what would be expected, as the nature of the trainee role means that generally their experience is less.

Figure 18. Participants’ Experience in Coaching, grouped by qualification

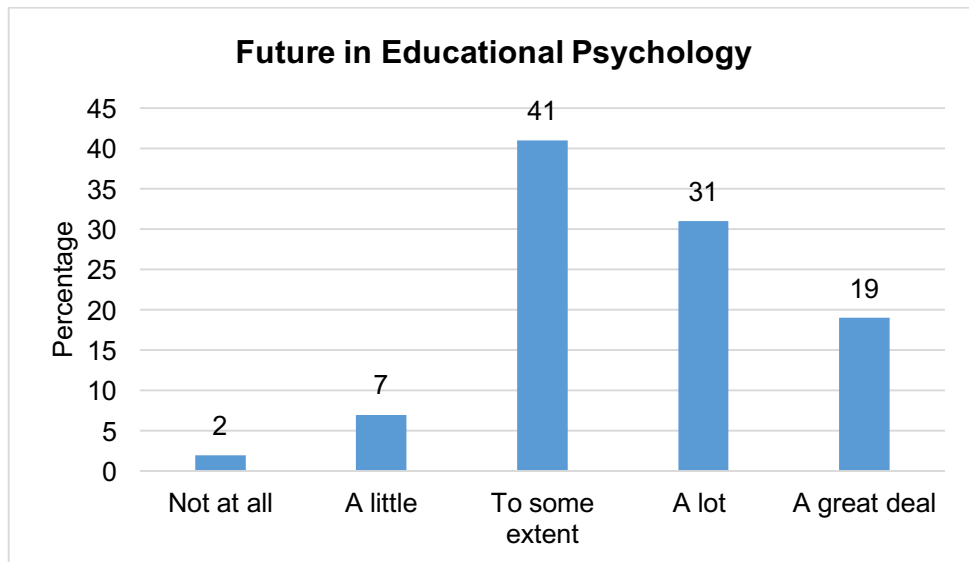


Chi-square analysis also showed a significant difference based on years of experience ($\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 7.80, p < 0.05$) (see Table 11 and Appendix 16.5 for outputs). Post-hoc Tukey HSD tests indicated that EPs with 9 to 15+ years of experience ($M = 3.09, SD = 1.31$) reported more experience in coaching compared to those with 0 to 8 years of experience ($M = 2.54, SD = 1.10$), or in training ($M = 2.23, SD = 1.15$) (see Appendix 16.8 for outputs). Again, these results are in line with what would be expected, as the nature of the trainee role means that generally their experience is less.

4.3.2 The future of coaching.

Participants were asked to what extent they believe that coaching will play a role in educational psychology in the future. Figure 19 shows that the majority of participants (93%, $n=109$) felt that coaching will have some future in practice. However, the mean response was 4 ($M = 3.6$). This suggests that many participants feel uncertain about the future of coaching, although there remains a tendency to rate it positively. No significant differences were found when comparing participants by qualification, years of experience or experience in using coaching.

Figure 19. Participants' Views of the Future of Coaching in EP practice



Content analysis of the qualitative comments regarding participants' views of the future of coaching was as follows (Table 19).

Of the 58 participants who provided a comment, 17 felt coaching should be included in doctoral training; one stated how they felt coaching "could be considered an essential orientation for EPs". However, an almost equal percentage described how greater awareness of coaching was also needed. It was felt that the general knowledge of coaching was lacking, both for EPs and the recipients of coaching.

Table 19. *Content analysis of participants' views regarding the future of coaching*

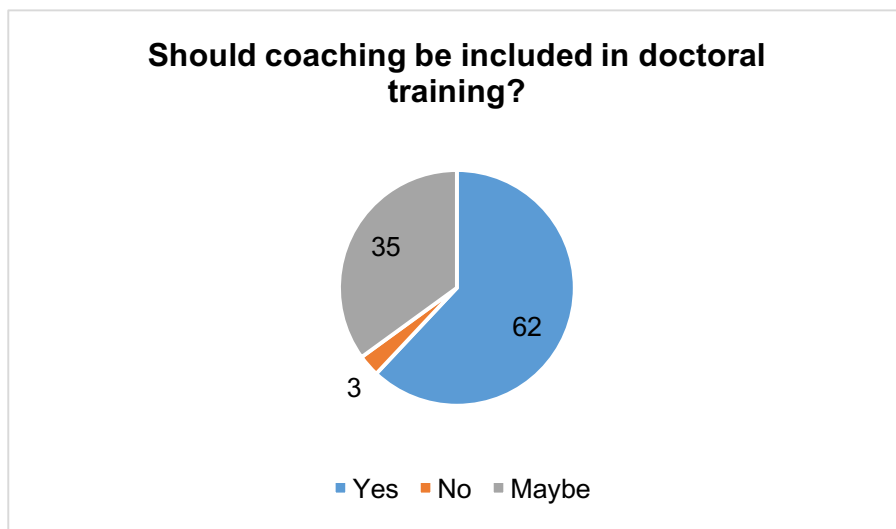
Category	Frequency of Responses	Example Quotation
Variable use in the future	6 (10%)	<p>"...different EPs work in different ways and so, whilst popular, some will use it and others won't."</p> <p>"...depends on the systemic model within which the EP works."</p>
The benefits of coaching may not be realised	1 (2%)	"It will very much depend upon the type and scope of EP practice in the future. With changes to funding and the alarming rise in traded services I worry that there may not be scope for the benefits of coaching to be realised."
Constraints in traded work	6 (10%)	"At the moment, EPs in LAs are under increasing pressure from the rise of statutory work and a reduction in traded time being purchased due to school budget pressures. These factors mean that traded casework is increasingly of a 'one visit' nature and means that it could be hard for schools to invest their traded time in a longer piece of coaching work."
Included in doctoral training	17 (29%)	<p>"I think this could be considered as an essential orientation for EPs"</p> <p>"Greater emphasis in initial EP training to understand and develop coaching competencies"</p>
Greater awareness is needed	16 (28%)	<p>"More awareness of how to make use of it..."</p> <p>"Schools need to become more aware of it as a service we offer"</p> <p>"By developing an evidence base for its use"</p>
Within supervision	8 (14%)	<p>"I think it could be part of supervision"</p> <p>"Using the coaching model as a framework for supervision for school staff"</p>
CPD opportunity	4 (7%)	"I think initially it would be down to individuals undertaking training and offering this work"
	N = 58 (100%)	

One participant described how “schools need to become more aware of it [coaching] as a service we offer”, whilst another stated how it was important to have “more awareness of how to make use of it”. A further 6 participants felt that there would be variation in how coaching is used and that this would depend on individual EPs’ ways of working as well as the contexts in which they work. This sentiment was echoed by a further 6 participants who described how the traded model may constrain the development of coaching as an area of practice.

4.3.3 Inclusion in training.

When asked about whether they felt coaching should be including in doctoral training programmes (Figure 20), 62% ($n=74$) of participants agreed, whilst 35% ($n=41$) responded with ‘maybe’. Only 3% ($n=4$) felt that coaching should not be included. These findings are of interest when considered in conjunction with the responses shown in Figure 19, which suggest that 93% ($n=109$) of participants felt that coaching would have a future in educational psychology. This discrepancy suggests that there is uncertainty about how that future may evolve in terms of developing professional practice, if coaching is not included in the training courses.

Figure 20. Participants’ Views of Coaching’s Inclusion in Doctoral Training



No significant differences were found when comparing participants by qualification or years of experience. However, a significant difference was found when comparing participants by their level of experience in using coaching $\chi^2(1, N = 119) = 4.78, p < 0.05$ (see Table 14). This finding is perhaps indicative of a higher level of confidence and belief in coaching as an approach to practice amongst those who have more experience in using it.

Table 20. *Content analysis of participants' perspectives about whether coaching should be included in doctoral training*

Category	Frequency of Responses	Example Quotation
Not necessary to include	3 (3%)	"It is not what an EP should be doing..." "I do not think it is necessary. I feel it is not too dissimilar to therapy."
Post-qualification training opportunity	2 (2%)	"I think it takes experience...to appreciate the nuances of the coaching relationships. So maybe best as a post-qualification training."
Curriculum is very full	15 (14%)	"A brief overview would be useful, but so much is already covered in EP training that it is unlikely that there would be scope to cover it in detail or fully train TEPs to be coaches."
It should be included	78 (74%)	"The skills utilised are fundamental to being an EP" "It is a valuable and flexible approach to practice" "I feel the more skills that can be incorporated into the doctoral training the better."
If it is well-taught	8 (7%)	"If it is clear how different coaching is from consultation and can be practiced as a skill it would be good." "...only if taught well and with care, mindful of the responsibility. It is not a quick and easy intervention."
	N = 105 (100%)	

The qualitative comments provide greater insight into participants' perspectives about whether coaching should be included in doctoral training (Table 20). 78 of the 105 participants who commented felt that coaching should be included in the doctoral training programme, compared to 3 who felt that it was not a necessary addition to the programme. However, concerns were raised about how coaching is taught ($n=8$) and that the curriculum does not currently have the capacity to include coaching ($n=15$).

4.3.4 Summary of findings.

Overall, the findings show that:

- 50% of participants reported having little or no experience of coaching.
- There was a wide range of experience in coaching, with qualified EPs reporting more experience compared to TEPs; 35% of TEPs had no experience, compared to 17% of qualified EPs.
- 26% of EPs had 'a lot' of experience; only 7% of TEPs gave the same rating.
- 27 participants used coaching in schools, with staff, students and parents as well as other colleagues, whilst 15 used it in a non-specific manner.
- There is variation in the nature of coaching training received.
- 14 participants used coaching as a supervisory tool or as part of consultation.
- 6 participants had received coaching.
- The majority of participants (93%) felt that coaching will have a future although the mean response was 3, suggesting uncertainty about the future of coaching, despite a tendency to rate it positively.
- It was felt that there was a need for greater awareness of coaching across the profession and that this may constraint its development.
- Coaching was described as being dependent on and perhaps constrained by individual EP preference and practices, as well as the traded model of working.
- Only 3% of participants felt coaching should not be included in doctoral training programmes; 62% felt it should be included, 35% felt it should 'maybe' be included.

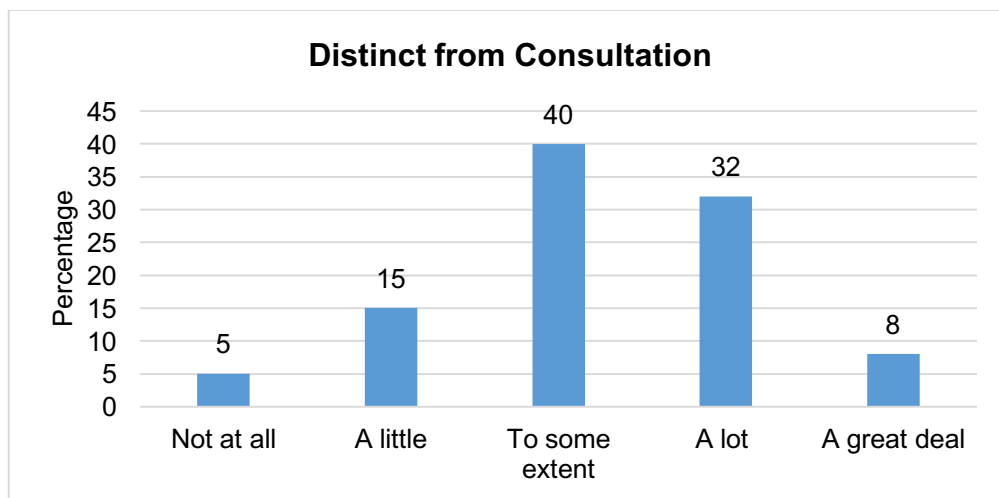
Concerns were raised about how coaching would be taught, whether there was the capacity to include it in the curriculum and how to ensure that it would be well-taught.

4.4 Research Question 4: How is coaching related to, or distinct from, other practices in educational psychology?

4.4.1 Distinctiveness of consultation.

This section considers participants' ratings of how distinct they felt coaching is from the consultation. 20% ($n=24$) of participants felt there was little or no distinction, whilst 40% ($n=47$) felt that there was some difference. A further 40% ($n=48$) felt there was a strong distinction to be made between coaching and consultation (Figure 21).

Figure 21. Distinctiveness of Coaching



The mean response was 3 ($M = 3.24$), suggesting that the majority of participants rated coaching as distinct 'to some extent'. However, the standard deviation was 1 ($SD = 0.98$), suggesting that the responses varied. The spread of data in Figure 21 is roughly equivalent to a normal distribution curve, which indicates uncertainty regarding the distinctiveness of coaching. No significant differences were found when comparing participants by qualification, years of experience or experience in using coaching.

The qualitative comments and further content analysis provides greater insight into whether participants view coaching as distinct from consultation (Table 21). 19 of the 82 participants who provided a comment felt that coaching was not dissimilar to consultation.

A further 4 participants described coaching as the next step on from consultation; one EP felt that “the suggestion of doing coaching would arise through consultation”.

Despite discussion of the similarities to consultation, a number of distinguishing factors of coaching were identified by other participants. 24 EPs described coaching as unique in its focus on working with one person to support another; “consultation is offered to a problem owner on behalf of another... coaching is to the person in the room”. Other distinctive factors include the aims, techniques and frameworks used in coaching, as well as the duration of sessions. Interestingly, although 8 participants felt that coaching was less directive than consultation, 2 disagreed, with one participant stating how they felt coaching “is more specific and directive in its purpose”.

Table 21. *Content analysis of participants' views of coaching as distinct from consultation*

Category	Frequency of Responses	Example Quotation
Doesn't seem distinct	19 (23%)	<p>"Coaching is part of consultation"</p> <p>"...there are many common threads, including the desire to create positive change"</p>
Coaching is less directive	8 (10%)	<p>"Coaching does not provide answers but rather helps coachees work out the answers for themselves..."</p> <p>"[coaching is] different as it involves the EP as [the] coach taking on a subtly different role...rather than offering 'expert' advice"</p>
Coaching is one person supporting another	24 (29%)	<p>"Coaching is about helping an individual develop their own skills...consultation is more about a group..."</p> <p>"Consultation is offered to a problem owner on behalf of another... coaching is to the person in the room..."</p>
Coaching is the next step from consultation	4 (5%)	<p>"The suggestion of doing a coaching session would arise through a consultation..."</p>
Coaching is very fixed	2 (2%)	<p>"Coaching is more specific and directive in its purpose, while consultation remains more flexible..."</p>
Duration	16 (20%)	<p>"Coaching usually takes multiple sessions..."</p> <p>"Coaching is a collaborative relationship that develops over time..."</p> <p>"Coaching as a tool for ongoing support vs. frequent 'one-off' nature of consultations..."</p>
Different aims, techniques and frameworks in coaching	9 (11%)	<p>"Coaching has a tighter framework..."</p> <p>"Coaching principles align with consultation but depending on frameworks or approaches they can be distinctive"</p> <p>"I think the differences lay within the techniques used in each practice."</p>
N = 82 (100%)		

4.4.2 Summary of findings.

Overall, the findings show that:

- 20% of participants felt there was little or no distinction between coaching and consultation; 40% felt there was some difference and 40% felt there was a strong distinction to be made.
- The standard deviation of responses was 1, indicating uncertainty about the distinctiveness of coaching compared to consultation.
- 19 of the 82 participants felt that coaching was not dissimilar to consultation; 4 described coaching as the next step on from consultation.
- A number of distinguishing factors of coaching were identified, including how coaching was unique in that it is about one person supporting another, as well as having distinctive aims, techniques and frameworks and differing in duration.

This chapter presented the findings from Phase 1 of the research. Chapter 5 will discuss these findings in greater depth and with reference to relevant literature.

Chapter 5: Discussion of Questionnaire Findings

This chapter will explore the relationship between the results presented in Chapter 4 and the relevant literature in the field of coaching and is presented as follows:

- 5.1 Research Questions 1 and 2: What views do EPs have of coaching? What influences the views EPs have of coaching?
- 5.2 Research Question 3: How do EPs feel that coaching can be used in practice?
- 5.3 Research Question 4: How is coaching related to, or distinct from, other practices in educational psychology?

5.1 Research Questions 1 and 2: What views do EPs have of coaching? What influences the views EPs have of coaching?

The key findings relating to research questions one and two are that:

- All participants agreed to some extent with the given definition of coaching, although there was uncertainty, which could be linked to levels of experience.
- 64% of participants reported not using coaching, although three quarters of those using coaching described themselves as 'highly experienced'.
- 81% of participants felt that coaching fits with EP practice.
- EPs felt that the impact of coaching would be positive.

These findings will be explored in greater depth, with reference to the existing literature.

5.1.1 Agreement with definition of coaching.

All participants agreed to some extent with the given definition of coaching. 76% 'strongly agreed' that coaching was:

A form of helping relationship, in which the coach builds a relationship with the coachee in order to facilitate the development of the coachee's performance, learning, and support them to make positive changes in their life and situation.

These findings are in line with the suggestion of van Nieuwerburgh and Passmore (2012) who noted that there is a general consensus regarding coaching as a process which can help people achieve their goals or improve performance. However, Gormley and van Nieuwerburgh (2014, p.91) highlighted that there are many different definitions of coaching, with “no currently agreed definition”. Consequently, EPs are likely to have differing conceptualisations of what coaching is and therefore there will be heterogeneity in agreement about what constitutes the practice of coaching (Cavanagh & Palmer, 2011; Lee, 2017; Ryan, 2018). This was evident in the qualitative comments made by a number of participants; many described how they continued to feel uncertain about what coaching is. One participant commented how they “don’t really know well enough to say either way”, whilst another stated “I am still learning about coaching”. It is clear that professional uncertainty is connected to participants’ levels of experience and therefore confidence; 64% reported not using coaching in their practice. Although the concept of professional confidence can be elusive (Nield, 2015), Miller and Todd (2002) outlined how the development of confidence is linked to the use of evidence-based practice. This suggests that, as more EPs engage with coaching and as its evidence base develops, professional confidence may also increase.

5.1.2 *Fit with practice.*

81% of participants felt that coaching fits with practice, whilst only 4% reported that there was little or no place for coaching in educational psychology. Despite Garman et al. (2000) noting that many coaches do not have psychological training, it is suggested that coaching is relevant to the role of the EP and that psychology could make “a significant contribution” to coaching “in terms of establishing a theoretical grounding and conducting empirical research, in addition to coaching practice and training” (Cameron & Monsen, 1998; Grant, 2001, p.2; Grant, 2006).

There is little evidence to suggest the contribution that coaching could make to psychology, although Spence and Grant (2007, p.187) suggested that life coaching “represents positive psychology in action”. Grant and Cavanagh (2007a) also described how the knowledge and skills of psychologists, including an awareness of change processes, mental health issues and ethical boundaries, are all relevant to the practice of coaching. Interestingly, compared to TEPs, qualified EPs and those with more experience reported how they felt that coaching fits more with practice. One participant commented how coaching “is another aspect of our role to offer, different to individual casework and broadens the role.” This is similar to the ideas presented by Adams (2016), who suggested that coaching may represent an opportunity for EPs to diversify their practice. This can perhaps be generalised to suggest that diversification of practice is more likely amongst EPs with more experience and so it would follow that those individuals would more readily identify coaching as an appropriate ‘fit’ with practice.

Coaching was described as “one of many tools available to the EP”; something additional which could be incorporated into their work. As previously outlined by Stout-Rostron (2014), a tool is something that is used within the coaching process, such as the types of questions asked. It was also felt that the skills of coaching should be implicit in EP practice; one EP commented how they would “expect a good EP to have good coaching skills”. Again with reference to Stout-Rostron (2014), a technique (or skill) was described as the competence of the coach to use tools in coaching. Further to this, Whybrow and Palmer (2006, p.57) noted that many psychologists believe that coaching is “inherent to their role” and a natural part of their repertoire of psychological skills. Research also indicates that psychologists’ training in building and managing relationships, maintaining confidentiality and their knowledge of psychological theory makes them well placed to practice as coaches (Brotman et al., 1998; Kilburg, 1996; Sperry, 1996).

5.1.3 Impact of coaching.

Participants rated the likely positive impact of coaching highly and the likely negative impact as very low; 79% felt that coaching could have a significant positive impact in practice, whilst 91% felt there would be little or no negative impact. These findings are of interest when considering the suggestion of Adams (2016, p.235) who highlighted that there are “only a small number of studies examining the specific impact of coaching psychology in educational establishments”. Similarly, Lofthouse et al. (2010, p.7) highlighted how there is very little research evidence regarding the effect coaching may have; there is a need for more empirical research into the effectiveness of coaching psychology (Linley, 2006; Short et al., 2010). However, the research which does exist suggests that coaching psychology can be effective (Allen, 2016; Theeboom et al., 2013), leading to improvements in mental wellbeing, resilience, goal-achievement and the development of positive emotions for both children and adolescents (Campbell & Gardner, 2005; Grant, 2015; Green et al., 2007; Lee, 2017; Madden et al., 2011; Torbrand & Ellam-Dyson, 2015).

Compared to qualified EPs, TEPs were less willing to rate coaching as having a strong positive impact. This may be connected to the status of being a trainee; they naturally have less experience in practice and therefore may be more cautious about introducing novel practices into their work. It is also likely that newly qualified EPs lack professional confidence (Miller & Todd, 2002). Webster, Hingley and Franey (2000) described how new EPs can lack clarity about the contribution they can make to schools. This may have translated into the findings of this research, as TEPs may have been less able to articulate their feelings about the likely impact of coaching in practice. Several EPs also commented on how coaching needs to be used carefully; that it can be “a productive tool when used carefully and appropriately with full, informed consent”, suggesting that there may be some reticence about making strong claims about coaching in practice. It was also felt that integrating coaching into EP practice may be confusing as “it provides an extension to consultation” and that, “if EPs are using these skills in consultation then it may not add anything to their practice”.

5.1.4 Use of coaching.

64% of participants reported not using coaching. This finding corroborates those of Law (2009), who suggested that only a minority of EPs may be engaging with coaching in their practice. Similarly, Franklin and Doran (2009) suggested that coaching is discussed more than it is practiced in the UK. However, of the 36% who reported using coaching, 75% described themselves as having 'a lot' or 'a great deal' of experience.

In their 2006 survey of coaching psychologists, Whybrow and Palmer (2006, p.76) identified how coaching was perceived as a "subset of the work of applied psychologists" and noted that almost 60% of psychologists spent less than half their time working as a coach. It is therefore of interest to highlight how that, although only 36% of the 119 participants used coaching, three quarters of these felt they were highly experienced. Exploring these findings in greater depth, 49% of EPs reported using coaching compared to only 14% of TEPs. It is likely that this reflects the need for those in training to focus on learning core skills and meeting the competencies needed for successful qualification, rather than engaging in additional practices such as coaching. Fallon, Woods and Rooney (2010, p.15) highlighted how it was particularly important for newly qualified EPs to be "able to articulate a coherent view of their psychological skills". This adds credence to the assumption that those in training may be more focused on developing their core skills rather than engaging in other practices such as coaching.

Over half of more experienced EPs reported using coaching, compared to only 39% of those with less than 8 years of experience and 19% of EPs in training. This suggests that individuals with more experience may feel more confident engaging in practices beyond those which would be typically associated with the work of EPs, as suggested by Miller and Todd (2002). It could also be the case that EPs with more experience are likely to be in more senior roles and so may have greater professional autonomy to practice in a more diverse way. However, Lunt and Majors (2000) also highlighted how legislation and the way in which educational psychology services (EPSs) work can influence the professional autonomy EPs are able to have.

Participants also identified several barriers to the use of coaching in practice. These included time, that coaching could be confusing and needs to be done sensitively and that it could be perceived as an expert model of practice and blur the boundaries of the EP role. With regards to the EP role, Lee and Woods (2017) argued that the EP's ability to make a distinctive professional contribution is being eroded, whilst Squires and Dunsmuir (2011) highlighted that the boundaries of the role are often unclear. Accordingly, Adams (2016) suggested that EPs may value the title of 'coaching psychologist', as it could help delineate the scope and boundaries of their work. However, one participant questioned "if there is a risk that the power dynamic between the coach and coachee would contradict the values associated with the role of the EP", whilst another commented how they felt that, "if coaching were added to the services offered by EPs, this will further stretch the already wide breadth of skills which could make the role even more difficult".

Concerns were also raised about whether coaching "promotes a move towards an expert model". It is important to note that the concept of the EP as an expert is in contradiction to the way coaching is conceptualised. Coaching is a more collaborative process, in which the coach "need only have expertise in facilitating learning and performance enhancement" (Grant, 2001, p.7); it does not stipulate experience or expertise on the part of the coach. Despite this, Lee and Woods (2017) outlined how EPs have been described as experts with specialised psychological knowledge.

It was felt that coaching could be confusing and needs to be used sensitively; it can be "a productive tool when used carefully and appropriately, with full informed consent". This highlights the importance of EPs exercising their professional judgement to draw on and use different approaches in practice (Devine et al., 2012; Whybrow & Palmer, 2006). Adams (2015) discussed the limitations of structures in coaching, explaining that coaches "can pay too much attention to the framework instead of being sensitive to where the coachee is at". This underlines the importance of coaches remaining mindful to the needs of the coach and is discussed further in 5.2.2. One EP also suggested that coaching could be confusing; that "trying to bring [coaching] in might be confusing, particularly for TEPs and newly qualified EPs (NQEPs) who are still developing their skills in consultation".

Time was also identified as an important factor and potential constraint to practice. One EP commented how coaching “could be helpful but unrealistic time-wise”. It was also felt that, due to time constraints, “the skills [of coaching] can be used in other areas even if coaching itself isn’t appropriate (e.g. because of time limitations)”. Lee and Woods (2017) discussed how, following the economic recession and resulting financial cuts to English education budgets in 2010, a greater number of LAs adopted a part or fully-traded model of service delivery. This has had repercussions in terms of the work EPs are able to complete within the boundaries of the time paid for by schools, who often demand more from EPs than the time allocated (Farrell et al., 2006; Stobie, Gemmell, Moran & Randall, 2002; Truong & Ellam, 2014). Ryan (2018) outlined how coaching is often offered as a distinct package to schools, whilst Adams (2016) discussed the coaching engagement and how the process operates from initial contracting, through the first and subsequent sessions to review and evaluation. These factors suggest that coaching is often a more long-term investment, both for EPs and schools and so it is likely that this will be significant factor in the context of the traded model of working and the associated time implications.

5.2 Research Question 3: How do EPs feel that coaching can be used in practice?

The key findings relating to research question 3 are that:

- 50% of participants had little or no experience of coaching.
- Amongst participants there was a wide range of experience in coaching.
- Qualified EPs had more experience in coaching compared to those in training.
- Coaching was used in schools (with staff, students and parents), as well as within supervision, and as part of consultation.
- A number of participants had received coaching, as well as having been trained on how to use coaching, although there was wide variation in the nature of training received.
- 93% of participants felt that coaching will have a future in educational psychology although the mean response was 3, suggesting uncertainty about the future, despite a tendency to rate it positively.
- It was felt that there was a need for greater awareness of coaching across the profession and that this may constrain its future development.
- Coaching was described as being dependent on and perhaps constrained by individual EP preference and practices, as well as the traded model of working.
- 3% of participants felt coaching should not be included in doctoral training; 62% felt it should be included, whilst 35% felt it should 'maybe' be included.
- Concerns were raised about how coaching would be taught, whether there was the necessary capacity to include coaching in the curriculum and how to ensure that coaching would be well-taught across courses.

These findings will be explored in greater depth, with reference to the existing literature.

5.2.1 Experience of coaching.

Half of participants reported little or no experience of coaching. As previously outlined, Law (2009) suggested that only a minority of EPs may be engaging with coaching in their practice, and again the findings of this research corroborate this. However, qualified EPs reported more experience compared to TEPs; 35% of TEPs had no experience, compared to 17% of qualified EPs. Again, this may be connected to the status of being in training; naturally TEPs have less experience and so will have had less time to explore and diversify their practice.

Coaching was used in schools with staff, students and parents, as well as within supervision, and as part of consultation. One EP commented how they “use coaching as a central part of [their] work with colleagues, school staff, parents and children/young people”. van Nieuwerburgh (2012) highlighted how the purpose of coaching in education is diverse; evidence suggests that it can be used to support a wide range of needs across a number of different levels, including in schools, colleges and universities. Coaching can also be used at a group or individual level in a number of ways, including to promote wellbeing (e.g. Adams, 2016) and develop professional practice (e.g. Goff et al., 2014). As such, it is unsurprising that the comments from this research reflect the diversity indicated by the existing literature.

A number of participants had been trained in coaching, although there was variation in the formality of training received. One EP was “completing the ILM Level 5 Certificate in Coaching and Mentoring”, whilst others “attended a half-day training” or received “two lectures at university”. There is a wide range of coaching training and accreditation programmes available within the coaching industry and no barriers to becoming a coach in terms of professional experience and formal qualifications (Grant, 2006). It therefore follows that EPs received training of varying quality. Several EPs had also been coached; one had “been a coachee in current and previous posts”. Anderson and Anderson (2005) suggested that the quality of coaching may be influenced by the capability of the coach. Similarly, Spence and Grant (2007) outlined how the training of coaches is important in determining the outcomes of the coaching process.

5.2.2 Implications of coaching.

Overall, 94% of participants felt that there were little or no negative implications of including coaching in practice. One commented that they “don’t see how any evidence-based psychological approaches to EP work could be negative”, whilst another described coaching as “essential to practice”. Participants felt more strongly that coaching was not a negative addition to practice compared to the strength of agreement that it would be a positive addition. Furthermore, qualified EPs and those with more experience rated coaching as a more valuable addition; those with less experience rated coaching as having less potential value. It appears that qualified EPs have less reservations about coaching. Again, this could be attributed to feelings of professional confidence, as discussed in 5.1.1.

It was also felt that sometimes other approaches may be more appropriate than coaching and that, in order to use it effectively, coaching needs to be clearly understood. One participant noted that coaching “has to be used mindfully and appropriately”, whilst another stated that “unless the relationship is clear...there could be confusion”. It was also felt that “different people require different approaches”; coaching was not seen as a universal approach which could be applied in all areas of practice and with all individuals.

5.2.3 Future of coaching.

The majority of participants felt that coaching will have a future in educational psychology, although there appears to be uncertainty about how this may develop. One participant commented that the future of coaching “will very much depend upon the type and scope of EP practice in the future. With changes to funding and the alarming rise in traded services I worry that there may not be scope for the benefits of coaching to be realised.” Uncertainty was a theme identified by Gersch (2009) in his paper exploring the future of educational psychology. He described how a positive future is possible but that the realisation of this is dependent on “the manner in which EPs meet the challenges ahead” (p.9). Further exploration of the comments made by participants shines a light on the potential challenges for the future of coaching.

It was felt that there was a need for greater awareness of coaching across the profession and that this may constrain its future development. One participant commented how “schools need to become more aware of [coaching] as a service we offer”. Another felt that this would be achieved “by developing an evidence base for its use”. Madden et al. (2011, p.81) described how “evidence-based coaching may in time become a crucial methodology for the application of positive psychology in educational settings”. However, and as highlighted in the existing literature, developing an evidence base for coaching remains problematic; there currently is very little systematic research into its use in educational psychology (Adams, 2016; Allan, 2007; Lofthouse et al., 2010). Ellis (2013) noted that both qualitative and quantitative data could be valuable in helping develop an evidence base for coaching and help shape the future of the profession, whilst Grant (2016, p.317) outlined how “qualitative research is fundamental to developing our understanding of coaching processes”. Grant (2011a) also argued that significant research is required to develop the credibility and strength of the coaching profession.

Coaching was also described as being dependent on and perhaps constrained by individual EP preference and practices, as well as the traded model of working. Lee and Woods (2017) and MacKay (2002) suggested that the advent of trading has meant that EPs need to be clearer about the services they can offer, both in their own minds, and when discussing this with schools. As such, it could be argued that without a strong evidence base, it will be difficult for those wishing to engage in coaching to clearly articulate why it is of value to schools. One participant commented how the use of coaching “depends on the systemic model within which the EP works” whilst another outlined how “different EPs work in different ways and so, whilst popular, some will use it and others won’t.” This suggests that some EPs may be able to exercise greater professional autonomy and introduce coaching in their practice. Changes in service delivery have been found to influence the EP role (Fallon et al., 2010; Lee & Woods, 2017).

Squires and Dunsmuir (2011) discussed how the boundaries of the role will vary depending on the EPS and the schools with whom EPs work. For example, with funding now increasingly being delegated to schools, decisions about how EPs work are now more often being determined by schools rather than the EPS (Gibbs & Papps, 2017), which again underlines the importance of EPs being able to present coaching as a valuable approach to practice in schools. One EP commented: “At the moment, EPs in LAs are under increasing pressure from the rise of statutory work and a reduction in traded time being purchased due to school budget pressures. These factors mean that traded casework is increasingly of a ‘one visit’ nature and means that it could be hard for schools to invest their traded time in a longer piece of coaching work.”.

5.2.4 Inclusion in doctoral training.

Only 3% of participants felt coaching should not be included in doctoral training programmes; 62% felt it should be included, whilst 35% felt it should ‘maybe’ be included. The discrepancy between those who felt that coaching should be included in the doctoral training (62%) versus the 93% who feel that coaching has a future would suggest that there is uncertainty about how that future may evolve in terms of developing professional practice, if coaching is not included in the training courses. Participants commented how they felt coaching “could be considered as an essential orientation for EPs”, that “the skills utilised are fundamental to being an EP” and that “it is a valuable and flexible approach to practice. At an undergraduate degree level, Palmer (2008b) suggested that coaching psychology should be included in course programmes, with Grant (2011a) noting that this was starting to be introduced by some universities. In contrast, in this research, one participant felt that “[coaching] is not what an EP should be doing”. Other participants felt that introducing coaching to doctoral training is not necessary. Madden et al. (2011) suggested that, despite developments in both coaching research and practice, little attention has been given to developing a formal curriculum or framework for the teaching of coaching psychology.

Gersch (2009) highlighted the importance of ensuring that the training of TEPs matches the future challenges of the profession. Although coaching is not currently a formal part of the curriculum in doctoral training, the findings of this research suggest that a number of courses have started incorporating aspects of coaching into their teaching; several participants had received lectures at university. Madden et al. (2011, p. 96) also described how coaching psychology “is well on the way to developing a coherent area of research and practice”. However, in this research, concerns were raised about how coaching would be taught, whether there was the necessary capacity to include coaching in the curriculum and how to ensure that it would be well-taught across courses. One participant described how they felt “a brief overview would be useful, but so much is already covered in EP training that it is unlikely that there would be scope to cover it in detail or fully train TEPs to be coaches”. With regards to the practice of teaching, it was felt that coaching should be included “only if [it is] taught well and with care, mindful of the responsibility. It is not a quick and easy intervention.”

5.3 Research Question 4: How is coaching related to, or distinct from, other practices in educational psychology?

The key findings relating to research question 4 are that:

- 20% of EPs felt there was little or no distinction in coaching and consultation.
- The standard deviation of responses was 1, indicating uncertainty with regards to the distinctiveness of coaching compared to consultation.
- 19 of the 82 participants felt that coaching was not dissimilar to consultation, with a further 4 describing coaching as the ‘next step on’ from consultation.
- 40% of participants felt there was some difference between coaching and consultation, whilst a further 40% felt there was a strong distinction to be made.
- A number of distinguishing factors of coaching were identified, including how coaching was unique in that it is about one person supporting another, as well as having distinctive aims, techniques and frameworks and differing in duration.

These findings will be explored in greater depth, with reference to the existing literature.

5.3.1 Distinctiveness of coaching.

20% of participants felt there was little or no distinction between coaching and consultation, whilst 40% felt that there was some difference. Although 40% felt there was a strong distinction to be made, the standard deviation of responses was 1, which could be indicative of uncertainty regarding the distinctiveness of coaching compared to consultation. This is consistent with the suggestion of Ryan (2018), who outlined how, although there are some similarities between coaching and consultation, several key differences also exist.

19 of the 82 participants who provided a comment on the distinction between coaching and consultation felt that coaching was not dissimilar to consultation, describing it as “part of consultation”. It was also felt that “there are many common threads [between coaching and consultation] including the desire to create positive change”. A further 4 participants described coaching as the “next step on” from consultation, that “the suggestion of doing a coaching session would arise through an identified need in consultation”. In line with these comments, Cameron and Monsen (1998, p.119) described how coaching and consultation are, to some extent, “interrelated”, whilst Wagner (2001) suggested that coaching sits within the consultation model; they both focus on problem-solving and working collaboratively with others. In this research, one EP described coaching as “another tool to use in the consultation process”. Ryan (2018, p.61, p.23) identified how EPs described coaching and consultation as being “informed by the same psychological approaches” and both drawing on frameworks to help structure conversations.

However, a number of distinguishing factors of coaching were identified within this research, including that coaching is unique from consultation because it is about one person directly supporting another, has distinctive aims, techniques and frameworks and differs in duration.

Exploring these differences in greater depth, it is important to highlight that coaching focuses on working directly with an individual to effect change in their life, whereas consultation focuses on working with those around the individual rather than directly with them (Caplan, 1970; Cording, 2011; Fletcher & Mullen, 2012; Grant & Palmer, 2002, as cited in Ryan, 2018; Kennedy, Frederickson & Monsen, 2008; Palmer & Whybrow, 2007; Wagner, 2001). One participant described how “consultation is more commonly a joint problem solving process, whereas coaching [is] a process of one person supporting another...”. This comment highlights how coaching focuses on individual development in a more direct way, whereas the process of consultation is often more indirect. It was also highlighted how “consultation is offered to a problem owner on behalf of another; coaching is to the person in the room”.

With regards to the aims, techniques and frameworks used in coaching, coaching was described as having “a tighter framework where you agree at the start what is wanted”. Furthermore, although the “coaching principles align with consultation”, it was felt that “depending on the frameworks or approaches they can be distinctive”. Similarly, one participant described how “the differences lay within the techniques used in each practice”. In this research, coaching was also described as being distinct from consultation on the basis of its duration. It was felt that “consultation is often carried out with people you have just met; coaching usually takes multiple sessions”. Similarly, coaching was described as “a collaborative relationship that develops over time...consultation tends to be limited with clearly defined and time limited boundaries”. One participant also described how they felt “coaching relies on a relationship which may take a few meetings to develop [whereas] consultation can be successful with a one off meeting”.

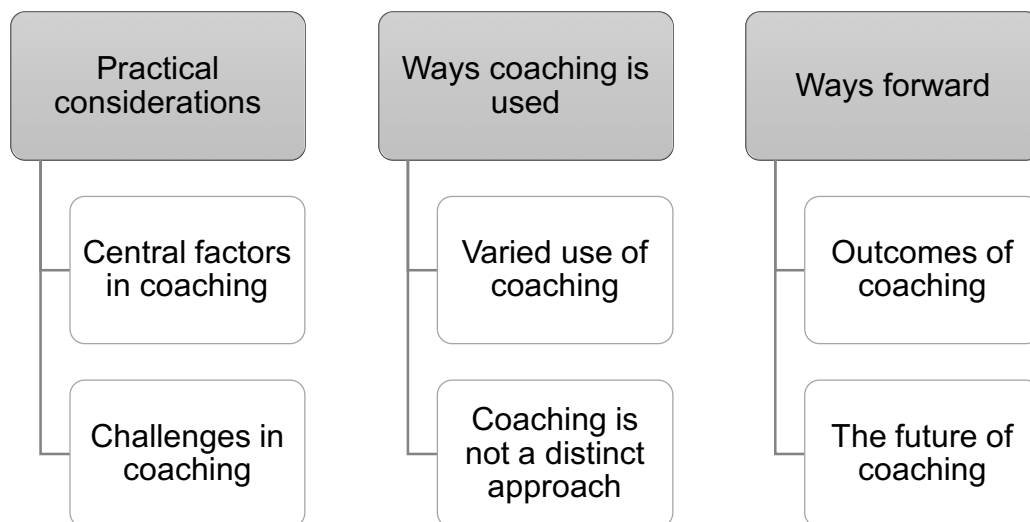
This chapter presented a discussion of the findings from Phase 1 of the research. Chapter 6 will present the findings from Phase 2.

Chapter 6: Phase 2 Results: Findings from Interviews

This chapter presents the findings for Phase 2 of the research. The main themes identified across the data set are explored and discussed in relation to each research question and are presented as follows:

- 6.1 Research Question 1: How and why is coaching used by EPs?
- 6.2 Research Question 2: What specific techniques of coaching are used?
- 6.3 Research Question 3: How do those who use coaching experience it in practice?
- 6.4 Research Question 4: What other aspects of psychological practice are used alongside coaching?

Figure 22. Global and Main Themes



The transcribed interview data was initially analysed at the level of each interview question, using thematic analysis to explore to explore themes relating to the aim of exploring EPs' experiences of using coaching. The codes for each dataset were grouped into emergent themes (Appendix 17). Further analysis of data resulted in the generation of six associated main and three global themes (Figure 22). Table 22 illustrates the relationship between the global, main and emergent themes.

Table 22. *Emergent, main and global themes*

Global Themes	Main Themes	Emergent Themes
Ways coaching is used	Varied use of coaching	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Professional autonomy • Discrete sessions • Structures • Groups worked with
	Coaching is not a distinct approach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coaching is a part of other practices • Links to consultation • Reference to models and frameworks • Reference to other psychological approaches • Reference to theory • An additional tool
Practical considerations	Central factors in coaching	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Importance of the relationship • Wider focus on issues • Focuses on the client • Focus on the future / ways forward
	Challenges in coaching	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Barriers • Boundaries
Ways forward	Outcomes of coaching	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Measuring the impact of coaching • Enables change(s) • Benefits of coaching • Understanding
	The future of coaching	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Growth in coaching practice • Important for EP practice

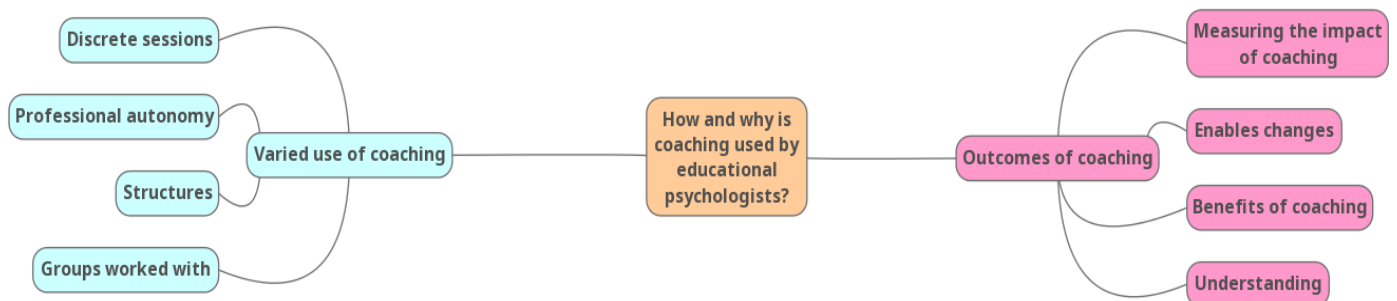
The emergent themes were considered in relation to each research question (Appendix 18). Each research question and its associated main themes will now be explored in greater depth with reference to the emergent themes and supporting quotes as appropriate.

6.1 Research Question 1: How and why is coaching used by EPs?

The main themes which will be discussed in relation to the first research question of how and why coaching is used by EPs are the:

- Varied use of coaching
- Outcomes of coaching

Figure 23. Thematic Map of Main and Emergent Themes for Research Question One



Within these two main themes, a number of emergent themes were identified (Figure 23). Each main theme will be explored in more detail by discussing the data generated at the level of the emergent themes.

6.1.1 *Varied use of coaching.*

A common theme identified was that coaching is used in a variety of ways. One key factor within this theme was the variety of groups EPs used coaching with, including:

- Teacher coaching
- Senior leadership coaching
- Student coaching
- Coaching with parents
- Managing staff
- Supporting other colleagues; supervisory coaching.

One EP (participant 4) commented how they used coaching “in many guises” (page 1, line 17). Furthermore, despite the common perception of coaching as an ongoing package of support, two EPs described how they had used coaching in single sessions. Participant 10 outlined how coaching “can just be a one-off” (page 1, line 8), whilst Participant 4 also described how they used coaching in:

...listening spaces – a bit like surgeries – where a teacher brings, or a parent brings – an issue and it’s just a single session but they bring an issue that they want to have some time with an EP with and so using a coaching model for that (page 1, line 17).

These findings suggest that, despite the traditional view of coaching as an ongoing process, it can be used in one-off interactions. This is in contrast to the suggestions which were made when comparing the practice of coaching to consultation in 5.3.1; it was felt that “...coaching usually takes multiple sessions” and is “a collaborative relationship that develops over time...”. There is little evidence in the literature to suggest that coaching is more or less beneficial depending on the number of sessions or indicating how many sessions are necessary to facilitate change for the coachee. However, in discussing the composition of a “typical coaching engagement” Adams (2015, p.188) outlines how the process generally involves first, second and then subsequent sessions, suggesting that the traditional application of coaching is to engage in the process over a number of sessions as opposed to in a one-off interaction.

Another key theme was professional autonomy; a number of EPs described how coaching is an optional approach to practice. For example, one EP (participant 3, page 3, line 146) stated that “there are probably some psychologists who are more interested in doing it than others” whilst another (participant 1, page 3, line 149) outlined how they felt that “coaching models should be an option to people to learn it and then try it out”. This analogy of coaching as an approach to be selected from a variety of options was further reflected in the ways it is applied. Participant 3 further explained how they had their “own sort of structure” around coaching practices and, although this EP stated that although they were “aware of some of the coaching frameworks, such as the GROW model and so on, [they didn’t] stick particularly to those” (page 1, line 45 – 46).

Providing an explanation for this separation from the models, one EP (participant 8, page 2, line 115 – 116) described how they felt that the frameworks weren't flexible enough, noting that "often coaching models are often quite rigid and so therefore there feels like an expectation that if you're going to follow the model to its fidelity then you sometimes are missing things". However, the same participant (8) also outlined the importance of remaining present in the coaching interaction:

I mean that in terms of being present with the person – if you just follow the coaching model to its fidelity then you might perhaps miss out on opportunities to be a good psychologist in a way because it is so rigid.

These findings suggest that, despite learning coaching as a discrete approach to practice with its associated models and frameworks, EPs may be inclined to exercise their professional autonomy, picking and choosing the ways they use coaching in practice. However, despite this notion of autonomy, many participants highlighted how the structures can be applied. For example, one EP (participant 5, page 4, line 212 – 213) felt the frameworks are beneficial as they provide "a model for going in there" and give "a structure to using solution-focused thinking". Another EP (participant 7, page 3, line 167 – 170) went further, commenting how "learning coaching really brought home the importance of having structure in these conversations, flexible structures that we don't necessarily adhere to rigidly, but it gave me different structures that I could use to scaffold the conversation". However, they also described the frameworks of coaching, such as the IGROW model, as transferrable, stating that they "can be applied in consultation as well".

6.1.2 Outcomes of coaching.

The outcomes of coaching were another main theme. In particular, the idea that coaching enabled change, both for the coachee and the EP delivering it. One EP (participant 9, page 2, line 106) felt coaching resulted in "sustainable change", whilst participant 3 outlined how "when coaching's going well, people do really make quite a lot of changes" (page 2, line 99 – 100).

This was elaborated on by another EP (participant 5, page 1, line 17 – 18) who, whilst discussing teacher coaching, described how teachers “found that it was effective, not only in helping with their issues, but it actually came out as a positive impact for children in the classrooms, so that was really good”. This suggests that the impact of coaching could be more wide-ranging than effecting change just for the coachee. Participant 4 further suggested that coaching can promote changes across the school system, commenting:

What I feel as a profession is that we don't leave a strong enough footprint in schools of psychology...we can go into a school for once a month for years and you wouldn't know by their practice, nothing in their practice would change...and I felt that's why I went on the course – because coaching for classroom practice, I felt this was a tool that I could do with in order to make that difference (page 2, line 73).

Considering the impact of coaching at a higher level, one EP (participant 1, page 2, line 79) commented that they had “written a new supervision policy” based on the use of coaching as a supervisory tool, explaining that they “use a model so then you can kind of work it [the supervision process] through”. At a more individual level, participant 6 described how coaching “created a paradigm shift in my own work and in my company's work and the work of my closest colleagues” (page 4, line 203 – 204).

The concept of change is closely linked to another emergent theme: the benefits of coaching. Two EPs (participants 2 and 3) described how coaching helps build confidence for the coachee, whilst an overwhelming majority (seven out of 10 participants) described coaching as “empowering”; participant 6 outlined how they found coaching to be “transformational at both a personal and professional level” (page 4, line 217). Exploring the concept of empowerment in more detail, references were made to how coaching can assist the coachee to realise their potential. Participant 7 described how it:

Can leave people feeling more empowered by helping them tap into their resources, get clarity about the range of factors that might be present in a situation, help them break a problem down into smaller steps (page 3, line 135 – 138).

Coaching was also felt to be a “positive”, “facilitative” tool, helping individuals believe in themselves and their capabilities. Participant 7 described how it enabled individuals to understand that “[their goal] is possible and that they can make time to do it” and can help individuals “go further in their thinking than they otherwise would” (page 2, line 86; page 1, line 8).

It was felt that coaching helped “strengthen problem-solving capabilities” by leaving people “better equipped so that they can help themselves in future”. Learning was also identified as a beneficial outcome of coaching for the EP; one described how “if you’re doing it properly, then you’re both learning”, whilst another stated how coaching “completely shapes how I think” (participant 2, page 2, line 126).

A further emergent theme identified was understanding. Coaching helps “develop the client’s perception of the situation” and the coach uses “coaching tactics...to frame the client’s precise understanding” (participant 6, page 1, line 8 – 9). Coaching was also described as a process by which the coachee is helped to “build a bit of understanding” to clarify “how they’re working with others [and] building their team” (participant 3, page 2, line 101 – 102).

The impact of coaching and how it is evaluated appeared to be a contentious issue; similar to the ways coaching is used, there was variation in how it was evaluated, if at all. A number of EPs referred to specific evaluative processes, such as using questionnaires, standardized tests or scaling as before and after measures. One EP (participant 9, page 3, line 152 – 153) highlighted that the type of evaluation “depends on what you were trying to achieve from doing the coaching, so sometimes you might have a particular goal in mind and your coaching structure has made it clear at the beginning”. Scaling was identified as a positive tool for evaluation as “school [and]... parents can relate to it” (participant 1, page 2, line 107). Evaluation was particularly valued when coaching was used over time, with several EPs commenting on how they follow up the coaching process with an evaluative conversation or questionnaire.

One EP (participant 3, page 2, line 111 – 112) used coaching as part of an observational process and then returned “a couple of months later and [observed] again and then come back a couple of months later and [observed] again”. Additionally, the same EP also reported using an evaluation sheet “at the end of the set of 6 sessions” of coaching, suggesting a shorter-term but more structured process.

The most formal evaluation method was the use of “two sets of evaluation forms; one for the coachee to complete at the end of the engagement and the other for the commissioner...” (participant 7, page 3, line 177 – 178). This highlights the importance of evaluating the impact of coaching both at an individual and also at a more systemic level. Less formal methods of evaluation were also mentioned; several EPs evaluated coaching “very informally”, citing verbal feedback as a form of evaluation obtained through conversation at the end of a coaching session. One EP (participant 5, page 2, line 126) completed “an evaluation discussion” but highlighted that “it wasn’t highly scientific”. There was also discrepancy in the use of evaluative methods depending on the duration of the coaching process; participant 3 stated that “if it’s just a one-off session then I guess I don’t necessarily get feedback, but if it’s a longer-term commitment then I do” (page 2, line 116 – 117).

6.1.3 Summary of findings.

Overall, the findings suggest that:

- Coaching was used in a variety of ways, with little continuity in the approaches taken and the groups worked with.
- Despite the common perception of coaching as an ongoing package of support, it was sometimes used in single sessions.
- A number of EPs exercised their professional autonomy in coaching; it was described as an optional approach, in which EPs pick and choose the ways it is applied.
- The frameworks of coaching were described as beneficial, providing structure to and being transferable across practice. However, it was felt that some frameworks didn’t provide much flexibility.

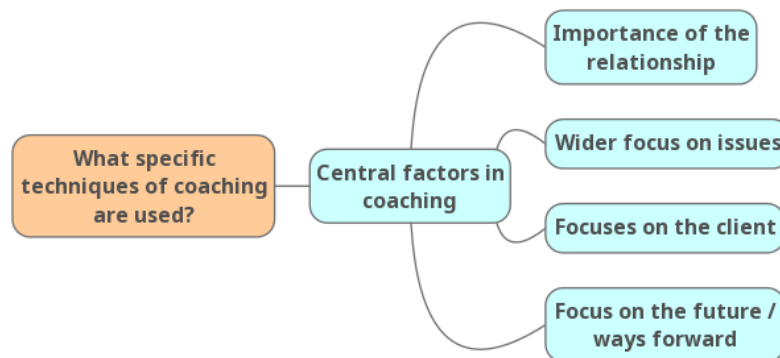
- Coaching enabled change in a number of areas, including for the individual receiving coaching and the EP delivering it and across the school system.
- Coaching built confidence for the coachee, enabled them to realise their potential and was described as “empowering”.
- Coaching was described as a “positive” and “facilitative” tool, which enabled learning for both the individual receiving coaching and the EP delivering it, as well as leading to greater understanding for both parties.
- There was variation in how coaching was evaluated, if at all; it depended on the duration of the coaching process, and was particularly valued when coaching was used over time, to establish its efficacy at both an individual and systemic level.
- Less formal methods of evaluation were often used.

6.2 Research Question 2: What specific techniques of coaching are used?

The main theme which will be discussed in relation to the second research question of what specific techniques of coaching are used is the:

- Central factors in coaching

Figure 24. Thematic Map of Main and Emergent Themes for Research Question Two



Within this main theme, a number of emergent themes were identified (Figure 24).

The main theme will be explored in more detail by discussing the data generated at the level of the emergent themes.

6.2.1 Central factors in coaching.

A common theme identified was that the coaching relationship was important in determining how the process developed and worked. One EP (participant 3) described the “relationship as completely central to the work”, noting that “the whole coaching takes places through that relationship”. Similarly, participant 2 felt that “most of what happens in a relationship like this is about the relationship you create, not about anything you bring” (page 4, line 211). It was also highlighted that the relationship developed over time, enabling a more meaningful and insightful dynamic to emerge. One EP (participant 3, page 1, line 8) described working with an individual over six sessions as a “privilege”; she was able to get to know them well. Another (participant 4) outlined a similar view, noting that “the relationship between her and myself also changed as a result of the coaching”; they created “an equal relationship through the coaching model” (page 1, line 57 – 60).

Three EPs also described how the effects of the coaching relationship were noticeable in later interactions. One described how “once you do some coaching...the subsequent encounters with them [the coachee] are much more equal” (participant 4, page 4, line 230). A second EP (participant 10) also noted that coaching had “strengthened relationships” and effected his future work in the school:

Even when I go back to do completely different work in that school, there is a bit of grounding there that I’ve perhaps not got in other schools. It is the coaching because I think it’s the process that really that builds that kind of relationship and I do think, I’m a big believer – I know it’s important to have relationships with heads and it’s important to have relationships with senior leadership – but I think it’s equally important to have relationships with your TAs, with the midday supervisors. You need to be able to relate to both and I think it’s [coaching] helped that (page 2 – 3, line 130 – 135).

This highlights how coaching could possibly provide a gateway to, and a means by which to develop, other relationships in the school system. This view was echoed by another EP (participant 9) who described how the concept of trust was central to enabling further involvement in a school:

I think a lot of it to be honest goes back to the relationship – you’ve got to build a relationship between the school and the educational psychologist that’s built on trust. So you trust each other that “OK, we’re going to do what we say we’re going to do, we’re all in it for the best interests of the children” – and once you’ve got that relationship going and they trust you, then you can start saying “oh well I tell you what, why don’t we try this? Or why don’t we work in a slightly different way?” – and I don’t think you can do that before you’ve got that relationship of trust (page 5, line 284 – 288).

It was outlined how, as well as focusing on the individual, coaching also enabled the coach to build a more holistic picture of the situation. Participant 3 described how, when used to support teaching practice, coaching “gives you a chance to think about their whole practice – and not just their work with one or two students” (page 1, line 25 – 26). Participant 3 also outlined how:

Sometimes coaching will just allow you to just have a different emphasis on that person and on their skills and development in a way that sometimes you haven’t quite got permission to do that within consultation because within consultation the focus is still very much about the child or about that particular situation, whereas coaching I think can open it up much broader (page 1, line 31 – 35).

This links to earlier discussion within Phase 1 considering the difference between consultation and coaching (5.3.1), as well as to later discussion in 6.4.1. The distinction between coaching and consultation will be explored further in Chapter 8.

A number of EPs also drew attention to the importance of focusing on the coachee, and how the use of particular coaching techniques enabled them to explore the coachee’s world in greater depth. For example, several EPs discussed the importance of understanding the individual’s constructs. One (participant 6, page 1, line 12) described how they “spend a lot of time at the perceptions, the social construct of the client”, whilst others specifically mentioned constructionism. PCP was also mentioned as a psychological technique to think about the individual’s perspective and constructs.

Coaching was also felt to be helpful in providing coachee with the space to share. Participant 4 stated that coaching is “giving them the space to co-construct the solution” (page 1, line 8) and discussed how “One head teacher said “do you know, I’ve been a head for five years, and I’ve lots of meetings and lots of discussions with people, but actually never discussed teaching and learning”” (page 3, line 182 – 184). This statement outlines how coaching provided the coachee with the time and space to explore their practice and a similar sentiment was mentioned by two other EPs. One (participant 7) described how coaching provides those working in education with “regular reflection opportunities and opportunities to go deeper than they might be able to in the day to day course of their work”. It was felt that such an opportunity was “vital” and that coaching provided “a safe, non-judgmental, reflective space to be able to talk openly” (page 2, line 119 – 121).

Another EP (participant 10, page 2, line 113) discussed the “positive messages” of coaching and how these were gratefully received by coachees who “really don’t hear it that often”; the process can be “quite emotional”. Emotionality was also mentioned by participant 3, who stated:

Sometimes you’re needing to contain some of the anxieties for people in order to kind of free up their cognitive capacity to kind of look at their situation – sometimes they’re just so overwhelmed with what’s going on that they can’t do some of that (page 2, line 76 – 78).

Again, this reflects the importance of creating space and facilitating the coachee to reflect on their situation and move forwards. “Coaching is really very much listening very carefully to the client’s needs”, “drawing down the tools which best facilitate that process” (participant 6) and being led by the needs of the coachee: “pure non-judgmental coaching means toolkit – and sometimes I pick the tool and sometimes I present a range of tools to the client and between us we come up with a model that works” (page 3, line 182 – 184). Participant 2 also stated that coaching is “very much in the hands of the coachee where it goes; it’s absolutely about what they want to get out of it” (page 1, line 7 – 8).

Coaching was described by participant 6 as “a purposeful helping relationship towards a targeted outcome”, with “the outcome as the key thing” (page 1, line 57 – 58; page 3, line 168). In particular, there was a focus on coaching as a future-focused approach; all EPs mentioned the use of solution-focused practices. This fits with the findings discussed in 6.4.1, which outlines the suggestion from prior research, that all coaching practices are underpinned by goal-directed, solution-focused frameworks (Bono et al., 2004, as cited in Theeboom et al., 2013; Grant, 2006; Green et al., 2006). In this research, one EP (participant 2) stated “in anything we call coaching that’s what we mean – it’s solution-focused” (page 1, line 30). This was further clarified by participant 8 who commented: “I think that coaching lends itself to solution-focused work – I think that the two approaches kind of overlap quite nicely – so I think you inevitably if you’re asking coaching questions they could also naturally become solution-focused questions as well” (page 1, line 49 – 51). There was also a focus on differentiating between solution-focused and solution-oriented approaches in coaching. Murphy and Duncan (2007) discussed the difference between these practices, outlining that a solution-oriented approach seeks to embrace and recognise the problem or concern as part of the change process. In contrast, solution-focused models tend to focus less on the problem and more on the ways forward.

In line with this distinction, participant 9 described how “if you just take a pure solution-focused approach, people get very cross because you haven’t heard just how awful it is for them” (page 2, line 95 – 96). It was felt that solution-focused approaches were not able to fully account for the reality of the coachee’s situation, which could undermine the efficacy of the coaching process: “they can’t really fully engage in the coaching – they can’t start thinking about what might happen next, they just need to kind of get it off their chest” (participant 9, page 2, line 98 – 99).

6.2.2 Summary of findings.

Overall, the findings suggest that:

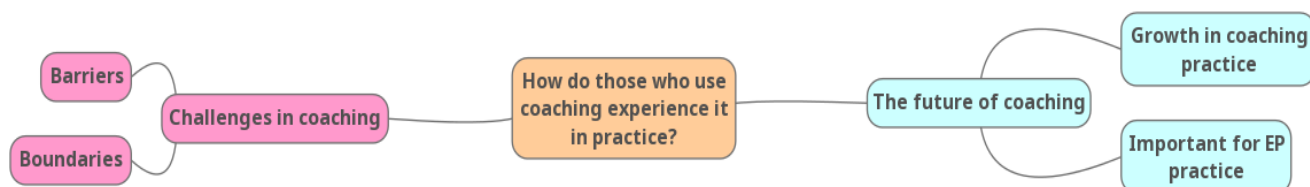
- The coaching relationship develops over time, is important in determining how the process develops and can lead to changes in future interactions.
- Coaching could provide a gateway to, and a means by which to develop, other relationships in the school system.
- Coaching enables the coach to build a more holistic picture of the situation and explore the coachee's world in greater depth.
- Coaching provides the coachee with the space to share.
- It was felt that the process can be "quite emotional".
- Coaching was described as a future and outcome-focused approach..

6.3 Research Question 3: How do those who use coaching experience it in practice?

The main themes which will be discussed in relation to the third research question of how do those who use coaching experience it in practice are the:

- Challenges in coaching
- Future of coaching

Figure 25. Thematic Map of Main and Emergent Themes for Research Question Three



Within these main themes, a number of emergent themes were identified (Figure 25). These main themes will be explored in more detail by discussing the data generated at the level of the emergent themes.

6.3.1 Challenges in coaching.

Two themes emerged which present challenges in practice: boundaries and barriers. In terms of boundaries, one EP (participant 5, page 3, line 161 – 162) described the difficulty she had experienced in maintaining professional boundaries when working with a student. She felt that this student “had become a little bit dependent” on the coaching relationship, meaning that the focus of the engagement had to change to “focus on accessing school systems for supporting his emotional wellbeing”. The emotional wellbeing of the coach was also highlighted as a potential issue; participant 3 described how “there that sort of emotional energy that you need sometimes if you’re working with someone who’s really struggling” (page 2, line 128 – 129). Both of these statements outline how coaching can often lead to extensive emotional investment, both on the part of the coach and coachee.

Questions were also raised regarding the boundaries of practice, with one EP (participant 3) questioning “where some of the boundaries might be between coaching and counselling and how to manage that” (page 3, line 136 – 137). In a similar vein, ethical boundaries were highlighted by participant 7 who discussed how these presented a challenge and questioned “what is confidential and what isn’t?” (page 3, line 198).

In addition to the challenge of managing and maintaining appropriate emotional, ethical and practical boundaries in coaching, a number of other barriers were identified. Half of EPs mentioned time as a main constraint in practice. For the EPs who focused on student coaching, timetabling was an issue; “the biggest challenge may be that actually it’s finding the time to take them out regularly because you can’t take them out of literacy and numeracy” (participant 5, page 3, line 155 – 156). For those practicing teacher coaching, finding cover for lessons was another constraint; “they also have to cover that teacher, either do it in their PPA time or cover them” (participant 4, page 4, line 222). However, this EP stated that she was “pleasantly surprised about how easy it was to get that cover”.

For one EP working in a LA (participant 3, page 3, line 147 – 149), the nature of the service level agreements posed a challenge “because we have service level agreements with our different schools and nurseries and colleges and it depends a little bit on how much time they have so it’s some of the settings that have more time”.

EPs also discussed the importance of needing to find opportunities to use coaching; one felt “there aren’t many suitable opportunities...due to the nature of the work that I’m doing at the moment”, citing statutory work as a main constraint (participant 8, page 2, line 126 – 127). Participant 8 went on to state that:

I think the future depends on the individual EPs and the training they have and the ability to be able to think systemically and rather than offer continuous casework, use coaching and coaching conversations maybe contracting coaching to help people help themselves, rather than continuing to support on a case by case basis – and I think that’s usually more down to a service-level and an individual EP level to be able to have those discussions with schools and to contract those with them (page 3, line 151 – 156).

Additionally, the willingness of schools to use EP time for coaching appeared variable; “there’s a real sort of practical challenge too in just getting schools to use us in that way” (participant 3, page 2, line 130 – 131). This issue is potentially further compounded by a lack of awareness about coaching:

I think the main challenge I would say is because it’s novel to people and so...there isn’t a public image of what coaching is...So I think the fact that it’s not how people see EPs; they still see EPs as “you test children don’t you?” (participant 4, page 4, line 210 – 214).

This was echoed by another EP (participant 7) who stated that “there are multiple definitions of coaching and I think anybody that’s seeking to understand what coaching is would need to look at the range of definitions” (page 1, line 21 – 22). If coaching is poorly understood, then it is perhaps paradoxical to suggest, as other EPs did, that there should be “more awareness of the EP coaching role” (participant 4, page 4, line 218), as the concept of coaching is not clearly known, even by those practicing it.

In a climate of increased trading, it was noted that a lack of awareness meant that EPs have “to go in and sell it to schools...and even when we put coaching in the brochure, people don’t ask for it – you’ve got to kind of go and say “I think there’s a need for coaching here”” (participant 4, page 4, line 220).

Another EP also described how, even when coaching was accepted as an approach to practice, there was a challenge in “helping teachers to understand what you’re trying to do and why you’re trying to do it” (participant 5, page 3, line 174 – 175). Exploring the traded model in greater depth, and considering the financial implications for schools, participant 6 described the challenge of “encouraging – and this is the bit that EPs don’t see – governors and head teachers to pay exactly the same for a coaching framework that they would for a EP framework” (page 5, line 297 – 298). Financial constraints were also cited by participant 7:

A challenge at the moment actually is that schools are increasingly stretched for resources and they’re finding it, in my experience in the local area here, some schools are finding it very difficult to put provision in place for kids, never mind fund additional CPD or wellbeing support for their staff. And in this climate of diminishing resources coaching may not be perceived as a priority (page 4, line 255 – 258).

Coachee engagement was also highlighted as a practice barrier. One EP (participant 1, page 2, line 115) described how, when using coaching as a supervisory tool, she experienced difficulty in “getting the EPs to sign up” to coaching. Similarly, participant 7 outlined how:

When schools buy in coaching for a range of people or for all staff, say, you will naturally get some people who are more signed up to it and are very willing, and some who are possibly a bit more sceptical or reluctant (page 4, line 225 – 227).

Professional confidence was also perceived to be a barrier. A number of EPs felt that “psychologists need to offer it with confidence” (participant 3, page 3, line 156) and have the “confidence...to integrate it into practice” (participant 6, page 5, line 292).

6.3.2 Future of coaching.

Within the main theme of the future of coaching, two emergent themes were identified: the growth in coaching practice and its importance for EP practice. At a service level, one participant (3, page 3, line 161 – 162) described how “if I start with us as a service then I know it’s growing... we’ve got different psychologists who are developing this in their practice”, whilst another (participant 5, page 4, line 216) noted that coaching has “become more prevalent over the last ten years”. Considering future training opportunities, participant 1 stated that coaching “should be on the [doctoral] course” (page 3, line 146), whilst participant 5 described that it is “a useful thing for people to have CPD and training in and then use it with the adults and children that we work with” (page 4, line 207 – 209).

As well as being highlighted as a barrier, the traded model was also cited as a potential opportunity, as “coaching lends itself well to trading” (participant 10, page 4, line 207). Another EP (participant 3, page 3, line 171) outlined that their service is “helped by having a traded model”, which enables them to sell coaching to schools. Despite this, questions were asked about “how do we get that [coaching] to be paid for? How do we embed it in our new traded services era?” as “it’s really hard to sell coaching as a standalone package” (participant 9, page 4, line 217 – 218; page 5, line 269).

The willingness of schools to use coaching was further discussed as it was felt that:

I think that it’s very variable by school [openness to selling coaching], and I think that the head teacher and the SENCO have a lot to do with it. Some schools are absolutely up for that [coaching] and that is what they want and it’s no problem at all to sell them that service and to deliver it and they love it and it works really well and all the staff think that you’re amazing and I think they’re amazing and it’s wonderful. And then you get other schools who are like “well, we’re fine thanks” – we just need this report (participant 9, page 4, line 229 – 233).

Coaching was also felt to be important in EP practice; it should be “integral” to practice (participant 6, page 5, line 321) and “a big part of what we do” (participant 2, page 3, line 196). Participant 7 felt that “coaching is a service that EPs would be, generally, very good at delivering”, whilst another stated “I don’t see a future for educational psychology without coaching” (participant 6, page 6, line 337).

This was echoed by a third EP (participant 9) who commented:

I think is kind of has to be embedded in what we do. I think we’re absolutely shooting ourselves in the foot if we don’t and I think the profession will probably die out if we don’t help the people that we’re working with learn and improve their practice and if we just swoop in as the people with the magic wand, do our amazing magic business, and then swoop out again and they go “whoa, what’s just happened there?” – I just don’t think that’s sustainable. So it’s got to be sort of an integral part of what educational psychologists do (page 4, line 211 – 215).

6.3.3 Summary of findings.

Overall, the findings suggest that:

- Coaching can lead to extensive emotional investment for both the coach and coachee.
- There can be issues in managing the boundaries in coaching, both ethical and professional.
- Time was cited as a constraint to practice.
- EPs needed to find opportunities to use coaching.
- The willingness of schools to use EP time in a coaching capacity varied.
- There is a lack of awareness about coaching; it is not clearly understood, even by those practicing it.
- Even when coaching was accepted as an approach to practice, there was a challenge in helping schools understand what EPs were doing and why.
- It was felt to be important for schools to consider the financial implications of using coaching.
- Coachee engagement was highlighted as a barrier to practice.

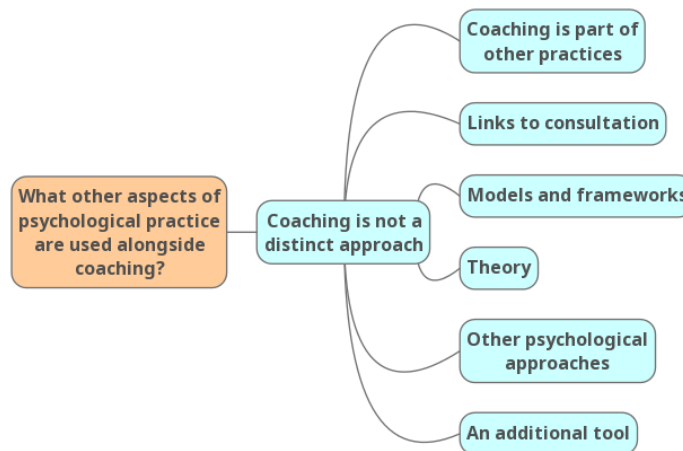
- EPs felt that professional confidence often limited their capacity to deliver coaching.
- The traded model of practice was perceived as both a constraint and opportunity in the delivery of coaching as an approach to practice.
- Coaching was considered an important aspect of EP practice.

6.4 Research Question 4: What other aspects of psychological practice are used alongside coaching?

The main theme which will be discussed in relation to the fourth research question of what other aspects of psychological practice are used alongside coaching is that:

- Coaching is not a distinct approach

Figure 26. Thematic Map of Main and Emergent Themes for Research Question Four



Within this main theme, a number of emergent themes were identified (Figure 26). The main theme will be explored in more detail by discussing the data generated at the level of the emergent themes.

6.4.1 Coaching is not a distinct approach.

In general, the interview data and associated themes suggest that coaching is not distinct from other approaches; it was described as an additional tool, part of other practices and linked extensively to the practice of consultation. Coaching was used in a variety of ways, including being combined with observations, to support both students and teachers. One EP (participant 2, page 1, line 39) explained how student coaching “was a revelation” as they felt the traditional practice of observation led to students feeling “totally powerless”.

Coaching was also used to “help teachers look at their classroom practice” (participant 4, page 1, line 23 – 24); one EP had attended a training course “specifically about coaching of classroom practice and using observation as part of the coaching model”. Seven out of 10 EPs described coaching as part of a “toolkit” and that it is “a very small toolbox – all I need is a pen and paper and my ability to sit and listen to somebody and listen to what they’re telling me” (participant 2, page 4, line 218 – 219). However, the importance of continuing to apply psychology was highlighted: “once you have those psychological skills you end up taking bits and pieces from them, rather than just using one approach” (participant 7). This reflects the value of using psychological knowledge in order to determine the approaches used in coaching. Other psychological approaches cited as valuable when used with coaching, included:

- Cognitive Behavioural Therapy (CBT); one EP “used coaching techniques drawn from CBT extensively”
- Counselling psychology
- Transactional analysis
- Motivational interviewing
- Positive psychology
- Humanistic psychology
- Video Interaction Guidance (VIG)

In contrast to the themes identified in 6.2.1, solution-focused approaches were not mentioned as being used in coaching. This omission could be attributed to the inherent relationship which is perceived to exist between coaching and solution-focused approaches. This fits with the findings of prior research, which suggests that coaching is underpinned by goal-directed, solution-focused frameworks (Bono et al., 2004, as cited in Theeboom et al., 2013; Grant, 2006; Green et al., 2006). Several EPs previously highlighted how “in anything we call coaching that’s what we mean – it’s solution-focused” and that “inevitably if you’re asking coaching questions they could also naturally become solution-focused questions”. It could be concluded, therefore, that solution-focused approaches aren’t perceived as separate psychological approaches to be used with coaching, but as approaches which are inherent to the coaching process.

It was also described as common practice to integrate psychological approaches, rather than applying one in isolation. One EP described how they “draw on different elements of psychology probably more than a specific coaching model”. This was echoed by another who commented:

I think one of the great things about psychology is having different things you can draw on and try and if it works, it works and if it doesn’t work you can try something else and you can kind of dip into things so and I think most psychologists probably do that, whatever your framework is (participant 5, page 1, line 65 – 68).

EPs also referred to other theories which underpin their use of coaching, including choice, motivation, self-determination and self-efficacy theory and growth mindset. Another EP (participant 10, page 1, line 55 – 57) also discussed Rogerian psychology; “I think a key thing that’s always been in the back of my mind is the Rogerian stuff, kind of the genuineness is really important because it is about building that rapport and that relationship”.

Various models and frameworks were also discussed, including the ENABLE, GROW, OSCAR and SPACE models, as well as the trans-therapeutic model of change. In particular, one EP (participant 7, page 1, line 64 – 65) described how “the classic coaching framework which can almost be seen as kind of like a meta-framework that can allow for the incorporation of other approaches is the GROW model”. This suggests that, although reference was made to other models and frameworks, EPs may use these as additional tools which can be integrated into coaching, or that coaching principles can be integrated into.

Coaching was also extensively linked to consultation; all EPs mentioned it when exploring how coaching was used. One EP “had the principles of coaching in mind in consultations” (participant 8, page 1, line 19 – 20), whilst another (participant 6, page 2, line 73) described coaching as “another tool to use in the consultation process”. Others integrated the principles of consultation into coaching, outlining how “there’s a really strong core of consultation practice on which to build from, so I think the psychologists have got the skills to deliver this” (participant 3, page 3, line 162 – 163).

Two EPs referred to Caplan’s definition of consultation (Caplan, 1970), with one explaining:

I think if you take the sort of Caplan mental health consultation definition – which talks about increasing people’s competence and feelings of confidence and skills – I think basically that is the same as coaching. So the parallels between the mental health consultation model and coaching I think are very, very close (participant 9, page 1, line 25 – 28).

Another EP discussed how the “skills that coaching brings are so closely linked to the ones of consultation that it seems very clear to me that it would be helpful for all people who are learning to become EPs to have the skills in coaching” (participant 8, page 3, line 145).

6.4.2 Summary of findings.

Overall, the findings suggest that:

- Coaching is used in a variety of ways.
- Coaching is part of a “toolkit” or a “tool” which can be used.
- EPs felt it was important to use psychological knowledge was used to determine the approach taken in coaching.
- It is common practice to integrate psychological approaches, rather than applying one in isolation; these were felt to be of value when used alongside coaching.
- EPs referenced other theories, models and frameworks which underpinned their use of coaching, although these were often used as additional tools and integrated into coaching or as approaches into which the principles of coaching could be integrated.
- Coaching was extensively linked to consultation.

This chapter presented the findings from Phase 2 of the research. Chapter 7 will discuss these findings in greater depth and with reference to relevant literature.

Chapter 7: Discussion of Interview Findings

This chapter will explore the relationship between the results presented in Chapter 6 and the relevant literature in the field of coaching and is presented as follows:

- 7.1 Research Question 1: How and why is coaching used by EPs?
- 7.2 Research Question 2: What specific techniques of coaching are used?
- 7.3 Research Question 3: How do those who used coaching experience it in practice?
- 7.4 Research Question 4: What other aspects of psychological practice are used alongside coaching?

7.1 Research Question 1: How and why is coaching used by EPs?

The key findings relating to research question one are that:

- Coaching is used in a variety of ways.
- Coaching is described as an optional approach to practice.
- The frameworks of coaching were described as beneficial, providing structure to and being transferable across practice.
- Coaching is described as a “positive”, “facilitative” and “empowering” tool, which enables learning, develops understanding and builds confidence.
- The use of coaching enables change in a number of areas.
- There is variation in how coaching was evaluated, if at all.
- Evaluation is particularly valued when coaching was used over time.
- Less formal methods of evaluation are often used.

These findings will be explored in greater depth, with reference to the existing literature.

7.1.1 Varied use of coaching.

The findings of this research highlight that coaching is used in a variety of ways, “in many guises”, with little continuity in the approaches taken and the groups worked with. Whybrow and Palmer (2006) suggested that coaching is often used in different ways across the branches of applied psychology, whilst Fillery-Travis and Lane (2006, p.24) noted that there are a “range of roles, coaching models and frameworks” which can be used in the practice of coaching. Coaching has also been described as a branch of applied positive psychology which can be used at varying levels to support the development of culture, professional practice and wellbeing at a group or individual level (Grant & Cavanagh, 2007b; Kauffman, 2006; Madden et al., 2011). van Nieuwerburgh (2012) described the purpose of coaching in education as equally diverse; it can be used to support a wide range of needs at different levels. Within this research, coaching was combined with observations, to support the development of both students and teachers. One EP (participant 2, page 1, line 39) described student coaching as “a revelation” as they felt the traditional practice of observation led to students feeling “totally powerless”. Coaching was also used to “help teachers look at their classroom practice” (participant 4, page 1, line 23 – 24).

The findings of this research suggest that coaching is often used as “a one-off” (participant 10, page 1, line 7 – 14), despite the common perception of coaching as an ongoing process of support (Adams, 2015). However, many EPs in Phase 1 (5.3.1) referred to the duration of the coaching process (see 5.3.1), stating that “coaching usually takes multiple sessions”. This suggests a significant difference between the views EPs have of coaching and the experience of those practicing it. In reality, it is likely that EPs are less able to deliver coaching as an ongoing package of support and so choose to use it in single sessions. This dichotomy may be contributing to the difficulty in understanding and defining coaching, as highlighted in 8.1.2. External factors and constraints which may influence the delivery of coaching in practice are discussed in 7.3.2 and 8.1.3.

A number of EPs discussed the importance of professional autonomy in coaching; it was described as an optional approach to practice in which EPs pick and choose the ways it is applied. This was also identified by Whybrow and Palmer (2006) and Devine et al. (2012) who noted that coaches often adopted an eclectic approach, frequently combining approaches rather than using a single technique or subscribing to one coaching model. One EP described how they had their “own sort of structure” around coaching practices and were “aware of some of the coaching frameworks, such as the GROW model and so on, but [didn’t] stick particularly to those” (participant 3, page 1, line 44 – 46). Frameworks were described as beneficial, providing “a model for going in there”, and giving “a structure to using solution-focused thinking” (participant 5, page 4, line 212). Whybrow and Palmer (2006) highlighted how psychology provides its practitioners with a range of frameworks which, according to Peltier (2001) can be adapted for use in coaching. However, it was also felt that some frameworks didn’t provide enough flexibility; “often coaching models are often quite rigid...if you’re going to follow the model to its fidelity then you sometimes are missing things” (participant 8, page 2, line 115 – 116). Fillery-Travis and Lane (2006, p.24) outlined how “there are a range of roles, coaching models and frameworks of practice” which can be adopted, with each framework leading to a different conceptualisation of the issue (Grant, 2006). Similarly, Adams (2015, p.36) described coaching as “a non-linear process”; often coaches will move around the different components of a model or framework, rather than following it in a linear format.

Within this research, EPs also referred to various theories, models and frameworks which underpin their use of coaching. As described by Grant (2006) and Joseph (2006), coaching is based on humanistic and person-centred approaches and also draws on the principles of positive psychology as well as cognitive behavioural, adult learning and goal-focused approaches. However, the EPs described how the models and frameworks were used as additional tools and integrated into coaching or as approaches into which the principles of coaching could be integrated.

One EP outlined how they “draw on different elements of psychology probably more than a specific coaching model” (participant 5) and how they felt that “one of the great things about psychology is having different things you can draw on and try and if it works, it works and if it doesn’t work you can try something else and you can kind of dip into things so and I think most psychologists probably do that, whatever your framework is” (page 1 – 2, line 65 – 68).

Overall, there appeared to be a lack of consensus regarding how models and frameworks were used. This may link to the concept of professional autonomy in coaching, as identified by Whybrow and Palmer (2006) and Devine et al. (2012); coaches tended to work in a more eclectic way, by combining approaches. It was also noted by Whybrow and Palmer (2006) that the selection of frameworks could be attributed to feelings of professional fluency and confidence, as opposed to implementing the approaches which could be most useful.

7.1.2 Outcomes of coaching.

Coaching was described as enabling change in a number of areas, including for the individual receiving coaching (“when coaching’s going well, people do really make quite a lot of changes” (participant 3, page 2, line 99 – 100)), the EP delivering it (one EP felt that using coaching had “created a paradigm shift” in their own work (participant 6, page 4, line 203)) and across the school system, resulting in “sustainable change” (participant 9, page 2, line 106).

The idea of change is corroborated by existing literature, which suggests that the impact of coaching can lead to diverse outcomes and increases in levels of:

- Insight (Anderson & Anderson, 2005)
- Self-direction, self-esteem and efficacy (Cox & Ledgerwood, 2003)
- Goal attainment (Grant et al., 2009)
- Psychological and subjective wellbeing (Green et al., 2006; Linley, Nielsen, Wood, Gillet & Biswar-Diener, 2010; Spence & Grant, 2007)
- Resilience (Franklin & Doran, 2009; Lawton Smith, 2015).

Grant (2006) described how coaching can add value in practice and enable the recipient to attain their desired goals. Within this research, coaching was described by a number of EPs as “empowering”, helping build confidence for the coachee and enabling them to realise their potential. Coaching was a “positive” and “facilitative” tool, which enabled learning and greater understanding for both parties. Interestingly, existing definitions of coaching tend to focus on learning for the coachee, rather than for the coach (Downey, 2003; Skiffington & Zeus, 2003). However, Cameron and Monsen (1998) and Lee (2017) suggested that coaching can enable learning for the coach *and* coachee at micro and macro-levels.

Despite some EPs referring to coaching at a systemic level, there is less literature exploring the influence of coaching in this area. Zwart, Wubbels, Bergen and Bolhuis (2009) found that it made an impact at a whole-school level, leading to increased communication and support amongst colleagues, whilst Lofthouse et al. (2010) evidenced how the effects of coaching led to an increase in teachers discussing their practice.

7.1.3 Evaluation of coaching.

Evaluation is an ongoing challenge in coaching (Bluckert, 2004). In line with the suggestion of Grant (2001), within this research, there was variation in how coaching was evaluated, if at all. The willingness of EPs to evaluate coaching often depended on the duration of the coaching process; evaluation was valued when coaching was used over time and to establish the efficacy of coaching at both an individual and systemic level. Less formal methods of evaluation were often used, ranging from “evaluative discussions” to receiving verbal feedback “very informally”. Verbal feedback is considered one of the most popular approaches by which to evaluate coaching (Gray, 2004). However, Gale et al. (2002) noted that evaluative methods in executive coaching were often based on self-report and so cannot be considered empirically valid outcome measures.

7.2 Research Question 2: What specific techniques of coaching are used?

The key findings relating to research question two are that:

- The coaching relationship develops over time and is important in determining the outcome of the coaching process.
- Coaching could provide a gateway to, and a means by which to develop, other relationships in the school system.
- Coaching helps build a more holistic picture of the situation.
- Coaching provides the coachee with the space to share.
- It was felt that the process of coaching can be “quite emotional”.
- Coaching was described as future and outcome-focused, led by the coachee.
- Solution-focused approaches are used in coaching.

These findings will be explored in greater depth, with reference to the existing literature.

7.2.1 Relationship in coaching.

EPs in this research felt that it was important to highlight how the coaching relationship develops over time. This, it was felt, often determined how the process developed, and led to changes in future interactions within the school system. One EP (participant 3, page 1, line 8) perceived the “relationship as completely central to the work”, noting that “the whole coaching takes places through that relationship”. McKenna and Davis (2009) described how the quality of the coaching relationship is a key factor in determining the effectiveness of a coaching intervention. It has also been found that coaches perceive the relationship as critical to the coaching engagement (de Haan, 2008; Grant & Spence, 2011; McKenna & Davis, 2009). In line with these findings, one EP in this research (participant 2, page 4, line 211 – 212) described how she felt that “most of what happens in a relationship like this is about the relationship you create, not about anything you bring”. Adams (2016) highlighted how it is important to consider the factors beyond the models and frameworks of the coaching engagement which may influence the strength of the coaching relationship.

For example, Murphy and Duncan (2007) noted that the most important factors in a therapeutic engagement are the resources brought to the process by the client and the quality of the alliance built between the client and therapist. These findings have been replicated in studies exploring the efficacy of coaching relationships (de Haan & Page, 2013).

Coaching was also described as possibly providing a gateway, and a means by which to develop, other relationships in the school system. One EP (participant 9, page 5, line 284 – 288) felt it was important “to build a relationship...that’s built on trust...and once you’ve got that relationship going and [staff in the school] trust you, then you can start saying “oh well I tell you what, why don’t we try this? Or why don’t we work in a slightly different way?””. Comparing the practice of coaching to that of consultation, several EPs also made reference to the relationship that is created over time within coaching sessions (5.3.1).

The key factors of the relationship which were mentioned included that it:

- Is developed over time
- Is built on trust
- Promoted equality in future interactions.

7.2.2 Benefits of coaching.

Coaching was described as a solution, future and outcome-focused process led by the needs of the coachee. A number of benefits were identified, including that it helps build a more holistic picture of the situation and explore this in greater depth. Similarly, Small (2011, p.26) described how coaching invites EPs “to work holistically, systemically and collaboratively”. Within this research, coaching was felt to provide the coachee with a space to share which could sometimes be “quite emotional” (participant 10, page 2, line 110, 114). This is similar to the findings of Burke and Linley (2007) and Clutterbuck (2001) who described coaching as a way of providing individuals with space for reflection. Furthermore, Lai and McDowall (2014) identified five key factors thought to contribute to an effective coaching relationship, of which one was effective communication and providing space for story-sharing.

7.3 Research Question 3: How do those who use coaching experience it in practice?

The key findings relating to research question three are that:

- Coaching is considered an important aspect of EP practice.
- There can be issues in managing the boundaries in coaching.
- Coaching can require emotional investment.
- Time is a main constraint to practice.
- School's willingness to use EP time in a coaching capacity varies; EPs need to find opportunities to use coaching.
- There is a lack of awareness in what coaching is and a challenge in helping others understand coaching and why it is used.
- It is important for schools to consider the financial implications of coaching.
- Coachee engagement is a barrier to practice.
- EPs' professional confidence may limit their capacity to deliver coaching.
- The traded model of practice provides both a constraint and opportunity in the delivery of coaching.

These findings will be explored in greater depth, with reference to the existing literature.

7.3.1 Managing the process.

EPs described coaching as an important aspect of practice. This echoes the suggestion of Adams (2016) who described a synergistic relationship between the value that coaching could add to the EP role and the contribution EPs could make to the field of coaching psychology.

Research has suggested that psychologists' training in building and managing professional relationships, maintaining confidentiality and their knowledge of psychological theory makes them well placed to practice as coaches (Brotman et al., 1998; Kilburg, 1996; Sperry, 1996). It is therefore unsurprising that EPs perceive coaching as an important or potentially valuable addition to practice.

Despite its perceived value, the importance of effectively managing the coaching process was highlighted as a key mediating factor. In particular, it was felt that coaching can often lead to extensive emotional investment, for both the coach and coachee. One EP described how “there is that sort of emotional energy that you need sometimes if you’re working with someone who’s really struggling” (participant 3, page 2, line 128 – 129). Cox and Bachkirova (2007) explored the issue of emotion in coaching and found that, although the process can often generate strong emotions, coaches tend to use professional judgement to determine how to manage these situations. Similarly, this research found that there can be issues in managing the boundaries of coaching, both ethical and professional.

One EP (participant 3, page 3, line 136 – 137) questioned “where some of the boundaries might be between coaching and counselling and how to manage that”, whilst another outlined the importance of considering “what is confidential and what isn’t?” (participant 7, page 3, line 198). Grant and Cavanagh (2007a) suggested that the knowledge and skills of psychologists, including an awareness of ethical boundaries, are relevant to the practice of coaching. Cameron and Monsen (1998, p.122) also identified the importance of coaches being able to recognise and manage issues beyond the border of their professional competence or “comfort zone”, avoiding “the development of mutual dependency”, ensuring confidentiality and managing the emotions which may arise within the coaching engagement.

7.3.2 Constraints in practice.

Time was cited as a main constraint. In particular, EPs need to find opportunities to use coaching; one felt that “there aren’t many suitable opportunities...due to the nature of the work”, citing statutory work as a main constraint (participant 8, page 2, line 126 - 127). The same EP also highlighted how EPs’ ability to use coaching was also affected by the willingness of schools to use them in a coaching capacity; “there’s a real sort of practical challenge too in just getting schools to use us in that way”. This could be attributed to a lack of awareness about coaching, as coaching continues to be poorly understood across the profession (Nelson & Hogan, 2009).

It was felt that even when coaching was accepted as an approach by schools, there was a challenge in helping them understand what EPs are doing and why. Ashton and Roberts (2006) suggested that EPs are often unable to clearly articulate what they have to offer for schools and outlined how this may further undermine the stability and distinctiveness of their role (Lee & Woods, 2017; Fallon et al., 2010). Furthermore, Fox (2015, p.383) stated that “the narrative about the position of the EP is based on the activities we do” (p.383). If EPs aren’t able to clearly explain their role and how coaching may align with this, then it could be argued that the future of coaching is under threat.

It was also felt that the financial implications of coaching determined whether EPs used it. One EP (participant 6, page 5, line 297 – 298) described the challenge of “encouraging...governors and head teachers to pay exactly the same for a coaching framework that they would for a EP framework”. Much of the existing literature addressing this issue focuses on executive coaching and how to demonstrate coaching’s return on investment. As such, this finding is a unique area for consideration in the field of coaching psychology in education. However, a recent investigation by The Times (Woolcock, 2019) found that, due to funding cuts, some schools have reduced their spending on external agencies, including the provision of educational psychology services.

Within this research, one EP (participant 7, page 4, line 255 – 258) described how “schools are increasingly stretched for resources and they’re finding it...very difficult to...fund additional CPD or wellbeing support for their staff. And in this climate of diminishing resources coaching may not be perceived as a priority”. The traded model of service delivery was perceived as both a constraint and opportunity in the delivery of coaching. It was felt that coaching may fit well with the traded model, as it is something which can be sold to schools. However, some schools were less willing to use EPs as coaches. Cameron (2006) stated that the demand for EPs to provide psychological advice and complete statutory work may lead to EPs losing sight of potential opportunities for change. It could be argued that coaching is a potential opportunity for change and that its use in schools is limited by competing demands on EPs’ time.

EPs also reported how professional confidence limited their capacity to deliver coaching; it was felt that they need to have “confidence...to integrate it into practice” (participant 6, page 5, line 292). Grant (2011b, p.128) described the importance of coaches being flexible, as coaching “often operates in complex ambiguous spaces”. Furthermore, coaching does not stipulate experience or expertise on the part of the coach; they “need only have expertise in facilitating learning and performance enhancement” (Grant, 2001, p.7). Together, these factors suggest that EPs who choose to practice as coaches need to have the confidence to work flexibly and in a variety of contexts, about which they may not have a good working knowledge.

Coachee engagement was also highlighted as a barrier, particularly when coaching was commissioned for staff by head teachers; “when schools buy in coaching for a range of people or for all staff...you will naturally get some people who are more signed up to it and are very willing, and some who are possibly a bit more sceptical or reluctant” (participant 7, page 4, line 225 – 227). Wampold (2015) suggested that willingness is a key factor in determining the outcome of therapeutic interventions. Similarly, exploring group supervision processes, Warman and Jackson (2007) suggested that individuals who are instructed to attend are likely to resist and be reluctant to engage with sessions. Tee, Shearer and Roderique-Davies (2017) also highlighted that coachee characteristics are influential factors in determining the efficacy of the coaching process.

7.4 Research Question 4: What other aspects of psychological practice are used alongside coaching?

The key findings relating to research question four are that:

- Coaching was extensively linked to consultation.
- Coaching was described as part of a “toolkit”.
- EPs felt it was important that psychological knowledge was used to determine the approach taken in coaching.
- It was common practice to integrate various psychological approaches in coaching.
- EPs referred to other theories and models which underpin their use of coaching.

These findings will be explored in greater depth, with reference to the existing literature.

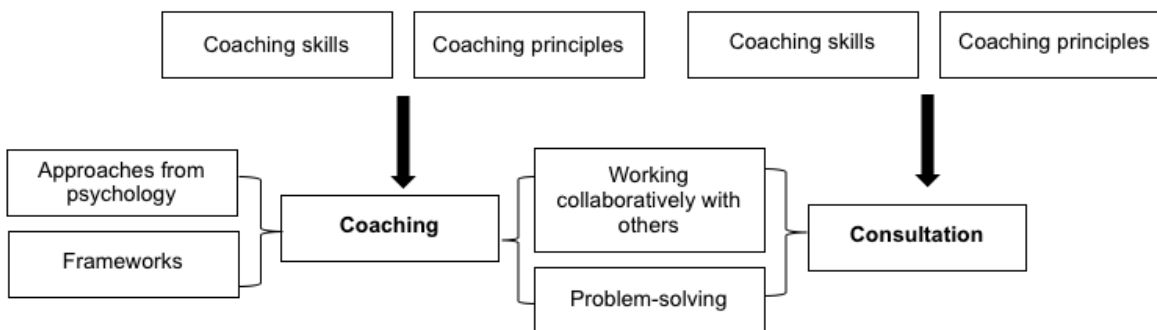
7.4.1 Coaching and consultation.

EPs extensively linked coaching to consultation; all mentioned it when discussing their use of coaching. Specific factors mentioned included that:

- The principles and skills of coaching can be used in consultation
- Coaching is a tool which can be used in consultation.

One EP (participant 8, page 1, line 19 – 20) described how they “had the principles of coaching in mind in consultations”, whilst another stated that the “skills that coaching brings are so closely linked to the ones of consultation...”. Clear parallels are drawn between coaching and consultation in the existing literature; Cameron and Monsen (1998, p.119) noted that coaching and consultation are, to some extent, “interrelated”, whilst Wagner (2001) suggested that coaching sits with the consultation model as they both focus on problem-solving and working collaboratively with others. Ryan (2018) also outlined how both coaches and consultants may use approaches from psychology.

Figure 27. Comparing Coaching to Consultation



One EP described coaching as “another tool to use in the consultation process” (participant 6, page 2, line 73). This is echoed by Adams (2015) who outlined how aspects of psychology can be used in coaching, suggesting that coaching can be used with other approaches in psychology, perhaps including consultation (Ryan, 2018). Wagner (2008, p.11) also noted that consultation involves the “possibility for different practices and models” of psychology to be used, which could include the practice of, or models drawn from, coaching psychology. However, it seems that EPs view the interaction as one-directional; coaching can be integrated into consultation, but consultation is not necessarily something which can be integrated into coaching.

This is not to say that the skills of consultation are not of value in the coaching process, although it is beyond the scope of this research to explore this relationship further.

7.4.2 Professional autonomy.

70% of EPs described coaching as part of a “toolkit” or an additional “tool” which could be used in practice. One commented that coaching is “a very small toolbox” (participant 2, page 4, line 218). Williams (2012) discussed how coaching is often the result of synthesising tools from other professions, whilst Libri and Kemp (2006, p.10) described how “psychology has many tools, techniques and strategies” which can be applied in coaching. The EPs in this research also felt that it was important to use psychological knowledge to determine the approach taken and how psychological tools and models were integrated into coaching: “Once you have...psychological skills you end up taking bits and pieces...rather than just using one approach” (participant 8, page 1, line 57 - 58). This is similar to the findings of Adams (2015) and Palmer and Whybrow (2007) who described coaching psychology as informed and underpinned by a variety of psychological models and approaches. Psychologists also tended to use a variety of therapeutic approaches in coaching (Palmer & Whybrow, 2007). In their study of executive coaching, Kovacs and Corrie (2017) also identified how, as well as having psychological knowledge, coaches need to be able to identify and draw on the most appropriate approaches, depending on the circumstances. Feldman and Lankau (2005) described how the approaches used by coaches are often determined by their background and individual preferences. Within this research, EPs referred to a wide range of psychological approaches used in coaching, including Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (ACT), CBT and motivational interviewing techniques.

This chapter presented a discussion of the findings from Phase 2. Chapter 8 will provide an overall discussion with consideration given to wider literature and relevant theory.

Chapter 8: Overall Discussion

The aim of this research was to explore EPs' views of coaching and the experiences of those using it in practice. This chapter will summarise the key findings from the two phases of research and consider these in relation to the wider literature and relevant theory. An evaluation of the methods used in this research will also be presented, before consideration is given to the implications of this research for EP practice and potential avenues for future research.

8.1 Bridging the Two Phases of Research

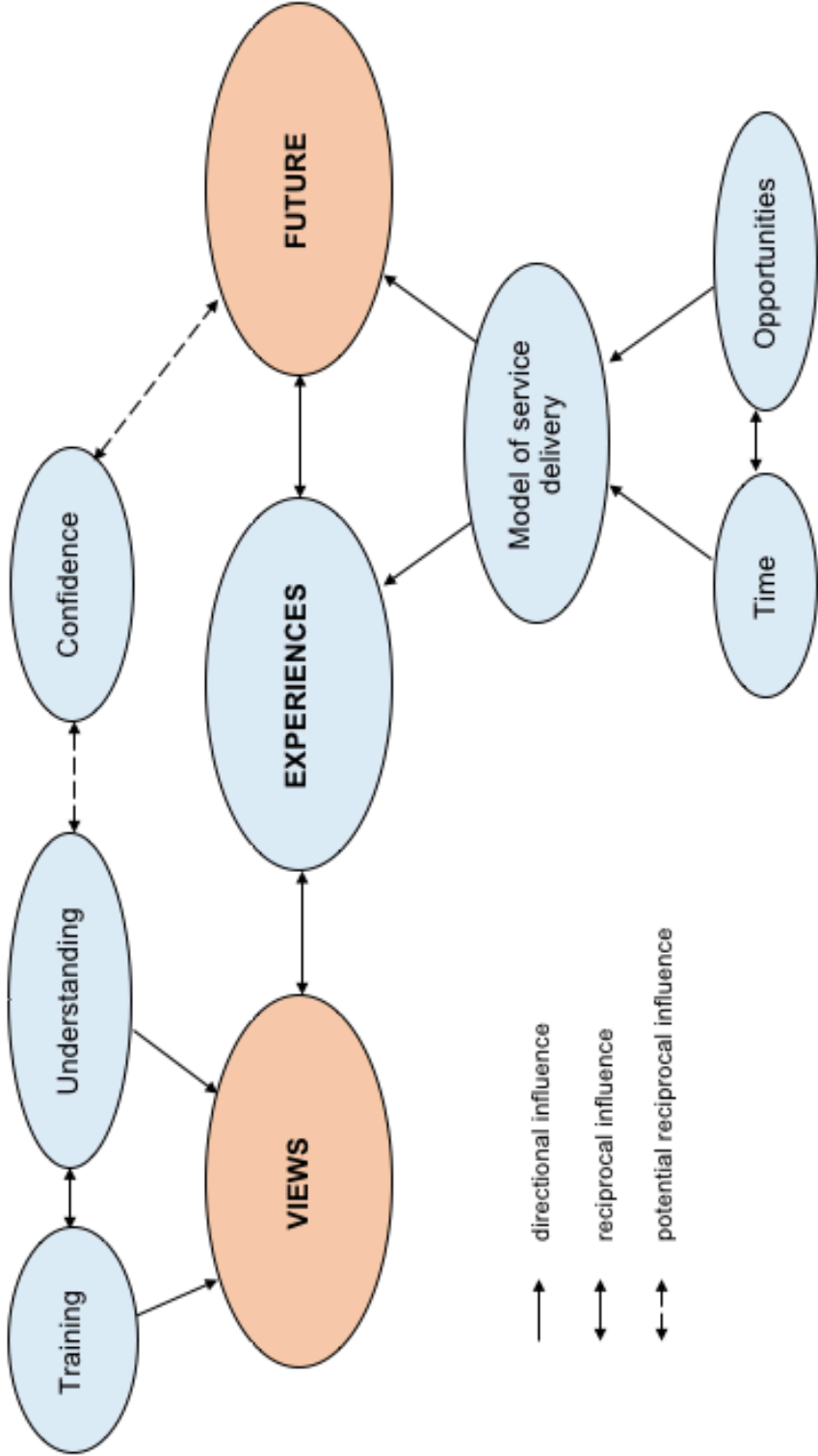
The key findings of this research are that:

- There is an interest in coaching but a lack of understanding about what it is
- Coaching and consultation are closely linked
- The use of coaching is affected by a lack of professional confidence
- Coaching has a future in educational psychology, subject to various conditions and overcoming potential barriers to practice.

These findings are explored in Figure 28 which highlights the reciprocal interactions between EPs' views, experiences and the future of coaching. It is suggested that views of coaching are influenced by training and understanding, which affects professional confidence. There are also a number of barriers which mediate the experience of coaching in practice and its future in educational psychology, including professional confidence and the model of service delivery. It is important to note, however, that these factors are a representation of EPs' perceptions or attitudes and views of coaching, rather than of observed coaching behaviours.

These factors will now be explored in greater depth and with reference to relevant theory.

Figure 28. Conceptual Map of Coaching in Educational Psychology.



8.1.1 Professional interest in coaching.

It is clear from this research that there is a generally positive view of coaching within educational psychology. As well as being seen as a valuable and flexible approach to practice, the skills of coaching were described as fundamental to the work of an EP. It was also felt that training in these skills could make a valuable contribution to future practice. These ideas fit with those of Whybrow and Palmer (2006, p.57) who outlined how many psychologists believe coaching to be “inherent to their role” and a natural part of their repertoire of psychological skills. It has also been suggested that psychologists’ training in building and managing relationships, maintaining confidentiality and their knowledge of psychological theory makes them well placed to practice as coaches (Brotman et al., 1998; Kilburg, 1996; Sperry, 1996). As such, the findings of this research support and extend those of previous studies.

Accordingly, coaching is considered relevant to the work of EPs and it is felt that psychology could make “a significant contribution” to coaching (Cameron & Monsen, 1998; Grant, 2001, p.2; Grant, 2006). Adams (2016) described a synergistic relationship between the value that coaching adds to the EP role and the contribution EPs are able to make to the field of coaching. Similarly, Libri and Kemp (2006, p.10) suggested that “psychology has many tools, techniques and strategies” which can be applied in coaching. With regards to their distinctive psychological contribution to coaching, EPs in this research described how they often integrated various psychological approaches within coaching, rather than applying one approach in isolation. For example, they draw on different elements of psychology, such as techniques from CBT and motivational interviewing, instead of focusing on a specific coaching model. Further eclecticism was identified in the use of frameworks; the GROW model was described as a meta-framework, into which other psychological techniques could be integrated. This suggests that even amongst professionals with similar psychological knowledge, there is variation in practice, which may contribute to the lack of clarity surrounding the understanding and use of coaching in educational psychology, as highlighted by Whybrow and Palmer (2006). This will be discussed further in 8.1.2.

Disappointingly, despite extensive descriptions of the value and flexibility of coaching as a practice in educational psychology, there are indications that its practice is limited. Accordingly, previous research has also suggested that only a minority of EPs are engaging with coaching and that it is discussed more than it is practiced in the UK (Franklin & Doran, 2009; Law, 2009). This research indicates that coaching is subject to the influence of various barriers, such as the ambiguity in professional understanding of what coaching is. This and other barriers to practice will be discussed further in 8.1.2, 8.1.3 and 8.1.4.

8.1.2 Understanding coaching.

This research suggests a need for greater clarity of what coaching is and how it is used in practice. Overall, coaching seems poorly understood amongst EPs. For example, there is inconsistency in how it is applied in practice, and it is often perceived as similar to the practice of consultation. Together, these factors suggest that coaching lacks distinctiveness and may not make a unique contribution to practice.

In order to understand the views of coaching in educational psychology, it is necessary to revisit its theoretical foundations and consider how it differs from other psychological practices, as outlined in Chapter 2. For example, all coaching practices are thought to be underpinned by goal-directed and solution-focused frameworks (Bono et al., 2004, as cited in Theeboom et al., 2013; Grant, 2006; Green et al., 2006; Griffiths & Campbell, 2009), which may make it difficult to identify the distinguishing features of different coaching practices. One of these practices is coaching psychology, described by Adams (2015, p.5) as a form of “academic and applied psychology in which qualified psychologists apply their skills in the context of coaching”. However, Whybrow and Palmer (2006) highlighted that there are different routes by which an individual can learn the skills and gain the experience necessary to become a coaching psychologist, suggesting that the knowledge and theoretical grounding of coaching psychologists may vary.

Furthermore, although the practice of coaching psychology is grounded in psychological theories, principles and methods (Adams, 2015; Allen, 2016; Palmer & Whybrow, 2007), it also draws on tools from other professions and is influenced by various historical theories and approaches (Auerbach, 2006; Berg & Dolan, 2001; Cox, 2006; Grant, 2012; Knowles et al., 1998; Palmer, 2008a, 2015), making it difficult to clarify what coaching may look like in practice. Accordingly, in line with the suggestion of van Nieuwerburgh (2012), this research showed inconsistency in practice; coaching was applied in different ways across school systems; EPs used coaching with staff, students and parents, within supervision, and as part of consultation.

When comparing coaching to other approaches in educational psychology, Ryan (2018, p.25) suggested that “there are a number of common factors which help to facilitate change in any form of helping conversation”. However, the process of goal-setting in coaching may make it distinct from other practices, such as counselling and consultation (Zeus & Skiffington, 2002). Consultation emerged from the tradition of mental health work (Caplan et al., 1994) whilst counselling is based on a therapeutic approach to practice (McLeod, 2001). In contrast, coaching draws on the principles of positive psychology, focuses on supporting wellbeing and adopts a humanistic approach to change (Allen, 2016; Kauffman, 2006; Madden et al., 2011; Grant & Cavanagh, 2007b; Palmer & Whybrow, 2007). However, despite its distinctive theoretical foundations, EPs remain unclear about how coaching differs from consultation. It was felt that there are common threads between coaching and consultation, including the desire to create positive change. Coaching and consultation are often perceived as similar (Cameron & Monsen, 1998, p.119; Ryan, 2018); they both focus on problem-solving and working collaboratively with others (Wagner, 2001), are “informed by the same psychological approaches” and make use of frameworks to structure conversations (Ryan, 2018, p.61). This research indicated that EPs viewed coaching as a tool which could be used within the consultation process. It was suggested that the idea of coaching may arise through a need identified within consultation.

Despite this correlation, several distinguishing factors were identified, including coaching's focus and collaborative style. Firstly, whilst coaching focuses on offering support directly to the coachee, who may or may not be a student depending on the type of coaching practiced (Adams, 2015; Downey, 2003), consultation focuses on working with an individual or group of individuals to effect change for a student or group of students (Wagner, 2001). Similarly, in consultation, the student is the focus, whereas coaching focuses on the coachee (Ryan, 2018). However, it may be the case that the coaching process effects a change in the coachee's practice which may then indirectly impact on the student(s).

Within this research, coaching was also felt to be less expert compared to consultation, which was viewed as a less collaborative approach. Coaching enabled the EP to work alongside the coachee to help them gain clarity and develop their skills and knowledge in practice, whilst consultation focused on the EP providing psychological advice and support to help staff problem-solve. Accordingly, Stout-Rostron (2014, p.124) suggested that the concept of expertise in coaching helps to further clarify its distinctiveness, explaining that "coaching is not about the coach giving all the answers; that tends to be the role of the consultant". Both of these factors, directly focusing on the individual and taking a less expert role, are consistent with the concept of coaching as defined in the world of sport or business, in which it is viewed as a task-oriented process to improve an individual's performance (Leedham, 2005; Stelter, 2009).

8.1.3 *Barriers to practice.*

This research highlighted several barriers which may mediate the use of coaching in educational psychology, including finding appropriate opportunities, feelings of confidence in practice and the model of service delivery. For example, it was suggested that EPs need to have confidence in order to integrate coaching into their work and that low levels of confidence constrained their practice. This could be linked to the ambiguity in understanding what coaching is, as discussed in 8.1.2.

Professional confidence may also be affected by coaching's limited evidence base. Miller and Todd (2002) discussed how professional confidence is developed through the use of evidence-based practice, suggesting that as the evidence base for coaching grows, EPs may feel more confident to use it. Currently, significant research is required to develop the credibility and strength of the profession (Grant, 2011a) and qualitative research will be important to develop an understanding of coaching's processes (Grant, 2016).

This research also highlighted variation in how coaching was evaluated, if at all. In particular, less formal methods were often used and more formal procedures were only introduced if coaching was used over multiple sessions, in order to establish its efficacy at both an individual and systemic level. Without a strong evidence base, it was felt that it was difficult for EPs to clearly articulate to schools why coaching would be of value. This is a particular challenge in the field of coaching psychology as psychologists are generally expected to base their work on evidence-based data, theory and science (Boyle & Lauchlan, 2009). However, in everyday practice there is often a gap between theory and practice; EPs may borrow ideas from other professions, such as philosophy (Boyle & Lauchlan, 2009; Lunt & Majors, 2000). An example of this is the Life Compass model developed by Gersch, Nieuwerburgh, Lipscomb and Gersch (2019). This is a coaching tool for decision-making which utilises an individual's philosophical and spiritual values and draws on the principles of philosophical thinking.

Professional confidence could also be positively affected by the introduction of coaching to doctoral training courses, which would provide TEPs with a theoretical grounding in the practice and potential applications of coaching. Discussion about the value of including coaching in doctoral training programmes produced unequivocally positive findings within this research. The vast majority of EPs agreed that coaching would be a positive addition to the doctoral training course, citing the skills as fundamental to practice and coaching as a valuable and flexible tool. However, concerns were raised about how coaching would be taught, whether there was the necessary capacity to include it in the curriculum and how to ensure that it would be well-taught across courses.

The EPs in this research reported that their use of coaching was also affected by the willingness of schools to commission them as coaches. It was felt that schools needed to be more aware of coaching as a potential service which could be offered by EPs and that without this awareness it was difficult for EPs to encourage schools to use them in this capacity. Unfortunately, it was beyond the scope of this research to explore EPs' perceptions of their role as coaches in schools compared to the ways in which schools used the services of advisory teachers, for example. It was suggested that the absence of a public image of coaching contributed to the unwillingness of schools to accept the EP-coach role.

It was also felt that the future of coaching would be dependent on the type and scope of EP practice. Research by Squires and Dunsmuir (2011) suggested that the boundaries of the EP role vary depending on the service and schools in which EPs work. In line with this suggestion, several EPs in this research reported that they needed to find the time and opportunities to use coaching and that the traded model of service delivery was a key mediating factor in their ability and capacity to practice as coaches. For example, some EPs felt that they had greater professional autonomy than others. In particular, those in independent practice felt they had greater flexibility and spent more time coaching.

This research also highlighted coaching as a more long-term investment for schools, both in terms of time and finance. This is an important factor when considering the model of service delivery in which an EP operates. Following the economic recession and resulting financial cuts to English education budgets introduced in 2010, a greater number of LAs adopted a part or fully-traded model of service delivery (Lee & Woods, 2017).

This had repercussions for the work EPs are able to complete within the boundaries of the time paid for by schools, who often demand more from EPs than the time allocated (Farrell et al., 2006; Stobie et al., 2002; Truong & Ellam, 2014). Furthermore, with funding now increasingly being delegated to schools, decisions about how EPs work are more often determined by schools rather than the EPS (Gibbs & Papps, 2017). This again underlines the importance of EPs being able to present coaching to schools as a valuable approach.

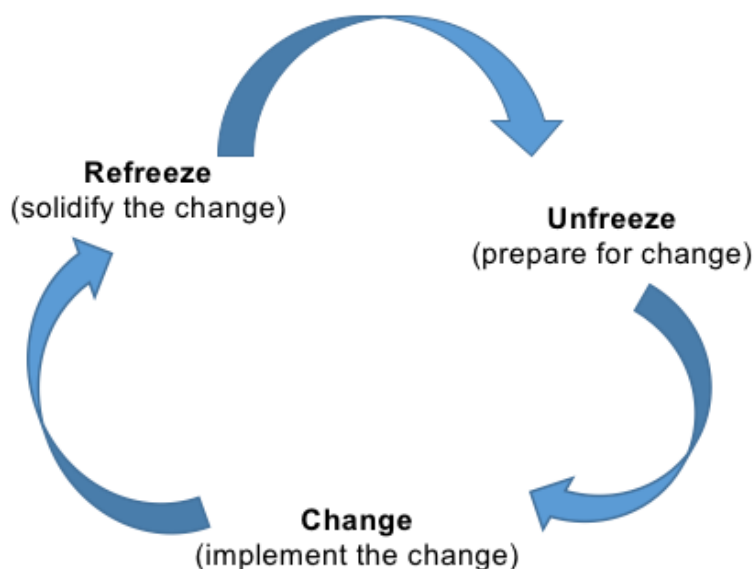
It has further been suggested that the advent of trading means EPs need to be clearer about the services they can offer (Lee & Woods, 2017; MacKay, 2002). As such, it could be argued that without a strong evidence base, it will be difficult for EPs to clearly articulate why coaching is of value to schools. Although coaching was felt to fit well with the traded model, as it is something which can be sold to schools, it was described as a potentially unrealistic approach to practice due to its demands on time. Accordingly, research suggests that coaching is often perceived as a longer-term commitment (Adams, 2016; Ryan, 2018) and this is a significant factor in the context of the traded model of service delivery.

Despite this perception, this research found that coaching was sometimes used as a standalone tool in a one-time session. This suggests that it may be possible for EPs to offer coaching as a more succinct piece of work and overcome any potential time constraints necessitated by a more traditional coaching model. However, this may have implications in terms of fidelity to coaching practice; this one-off approach contradicts the principles of coaching as a more long-term, relationship-based process (Adams, 2015). Unfortunately, it is beyond the scope of this research to explore this concept further; this is suggested as an avenue for future research in 8.5.

8.1.4 Theories of change.

When exploring the concepts of professional interest, understanding and practical barriers in using coaching in relation to its potential future in educational psychology, it is pertinent to consider Lewin's Change Management Model, originally developing in 1947 (Cummings, Bridgman & Brown, 2016). This model (Figure 29) consists of three stages: unfreeze, change, refreeze (Lewin, 1947).

Figure 29: Change Management Model. Adapted from Cummings et al. (2016).



Within the ‘change’ stage of the model, Lewin (1951) proposed the concept of Force Field Analysis, a three-phase model of change (Figure 30). Lewin’s Force Field theory presents change as a process which is subject to and influenced by pressure from both driving and restraining forces, which operate simultaneously but are often juxtaposed (White, 2016).

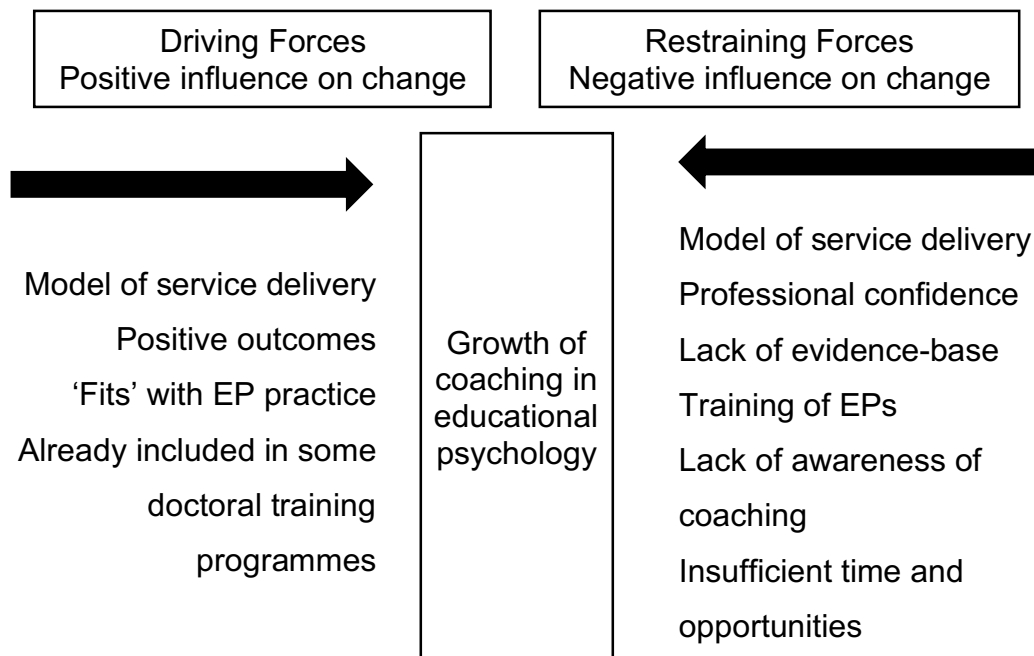
Prior to change occurring, the equilibrium which previously maintained practice needs to be disturbed by either introducing a greater number of driving forces or reducing the restraining forces (Lewin, 2005). Introduction of driving forces is a “high-tension” approach whilst reducing restraining forces is “low-tension” (Lewin, 2005, p.41). This is usually the preferred approach to change and is achieved through a group decision-making process (Lewin, 2005). For coaching, to effect change and develop its practice in educational psychology, this low-tension process could be achieved by introducing coaching as an approach to practice through a whole-service approach.

Figure 30 provides an overview of Lewin’s Force Field Analysis and illustrates the unresolved balance of factors which may be influencing the capacity of EPs to introduce coaching into their practice. The overall balance of these forces depends on their relative weighting. With regards to the practice of coaching, it appears that the restraining factors currently outweigh those which could positively influence change.

Therefore, until these barriers can be overcome, the growth of coaching in educational psychology may remain limited. As Gersch stated “the door is unlocked and ajar, but has not yet been walked through” (personal communication, March 21, 2019).

To develop coaching, it will be important to promote and develop its understanding and more clearly communicate how it is used in practice, in order to contribute to the continued development of a robust evidence base. It will also be important for EPs to receive more training and support so that they are better equipped and able to engage with and introduce coaching to schools as part of the traded offer. In turn, it is likely that school buy-in will be affected by the strength of the evidence base for coaching and whether it is offered with confidence by EPs.

Figure 30. Factors Influencing the Growth of Coaching in Educational Psychology. Adapted from Lewin’s Force Field Analysis model (1951).



The impact of each driving force can be summarised as follows:

- Model of service delivery: coaching is something which can be sold to schools (see 7.3.2 and 8.1.3)
- Positive outcomes: evidence suggests that coaching is beneficial for both EPs and coachees (see 2.5 and 7.2.2)
- 'Fits' with EP practice: coaching is thought to be a valuable and flexible approach which could make a significant contribution to practice (see 4.2.3, 5.1.2 and 8.1.1)
- Already included in some doctoral programmes: coaching is already taught at some universities (see 5.2.4)

The impact of each restraining force can be summarised as follows:

- Model of service delivery: coaching is a more long-term investment in terms of time and finance (see 5.1.4 and 8.1.3)
- Professional confidence: EPs lack confidence in coaching (see 7.3.2 and 8.1.3)
- Lack of evidence base: the evidence base for coaching is still developing; there is not enough evidence of positive outcomes at present (see 2.9 and 8.1.3)
- Training of EPs: there is inconsistency in the type of coaching training EPs receive (see 5.2.1)
- Lack of awareness of coaching: there is ambiguity in the conceptualisation of coaching and heterogeneity in its practice (see 5.1.1, 7.3.2 and 8.1.2)
- Insufficient time and opportunities: EPs may not always be able to find the time to use coaching (see 6.3.3 and 8.1.3)

8.2 Overall Summary of Findings

Overall, it seems there is professional interest in coaching. There are generally positive views and experiences of it in practice, despite it not yet being clearly understood and barriers such as time, opportunities and professional confidence constraining its development.

This research also makes a number of unique contributions to knowledge in the field of educational psychology. Firstly, the increasing professional interest in the use of coaching in education suggests that this research is well-timed; there is potentially a captive audience. Secondly, this research is unique; this is currently the only study which explores EPs' views and experiences of coaching. Consequently, the findings offer a unique insight into the practice of coaching in educational psychology. This research also offers considerations for practice and suggests avenues for further research. Coaching may represent a unique aspect of future practice in educational psychology.

8.3 Critique of the Research

In this section I will discuss the rationale for selection of this topic area, considering both its strengths and limitations. This research has a number of strengths in its design and offers a unique exploration of EPs' views and experiences of coaching. One strength is the breadth and depth of the findings. The use of both qualitative and quantitative methods provides more detailed data (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005), which enabled a more in-depth exploration of the views and practice of coaching. The use of questionnaires and subsequent follow-up interviews enabled triangulation of responses; participants' views were obtained using different methods and viewed from different angles (Willig, 2008), which enhanced the credibility of the findings and provided a more holistic understanding of coaching. A further strength of this research was that a fellow doctoral trainee independently reviewed the categories derived from analysis of the Phase 1 questionnaire data and the themes of Phase 2. This helped to reduce the likelihood of interpretation bias, which is particularly likely in thematic analysis (Smith, 2015). A final strength is that, on reviewing the existing literature, many studies appeared a-theoretical. However, this research drew on existing theory to explain the findings which gives the discussion greater structure and explanatory power when relating the key factors to real-world practice.

It is also important to consider the potential methodological limitations of this research, in the hope that it can support the development of any future research. The first limitation is that the total number of participants ($N=119$) represented only 2.4% of the total population of EPs in the UK. Therefore, the findings are not representative and may not be generalizable to the wider population of EPs. However, this research was exploratory, the findings are intended to provide further information about coaching, rather than making any determinative or substantive claims.

Within this research, the nature of recruitment also meant that participants were self-selected. It could therefore be assumed that participants had an existing interest in coaching and suggests that their views may lack objectivity. However, of the 119 participants, only 36% were using coaching. This suggests that, although there may be some degree of selection bias, it is difficult to ascertain whether this had a significant effect on the findings.

This research also relied on the use of self-report; all questions across both the questionnaires and interviews were open to subjective interpretation. Participants may have interpreted the questions and response options in a way which differs from what was intended. Furthermore, the use of Likert scales may have meant that participants' responses were open to subjectivity; 'a lot' may not mean the same for all people (Williamson, 2007). This was balanced, however, by providing a free-text response option, whereby participants were able to clarify what they may have meant by their answers.

There are also a number of limitations in using semi-structured interviews. For example, conducting face-to-face interviews can be time-consuming and the presence of the researcher can unintentionally influence participant responses (Ward, Gott & Hoare, 2015). In order to mediate against these limitations, nine of the 10 interviews were conducted via telephone; only one was face-to-face. This helped save time and, to some extent, may have mitigated the risk of researcher influence.

A final consideration is that the data collected in this research is limited as it only reflects participants' perceptions or attitudes and views and not any directly observed behaviours. As such, it is not possible to determine whether the data shows how participants behave in reality.

8.4 Implications for Educational Psychology Practice

This research has highlighted important considerations which need to be made regarding how coaching may be of value in EP practice, including thinking about what coaching has to offer to educational psychology, how it is assimilated into practice and where it may go to next. These factors will now be discussed in greater depth.

8.4.1 *What does coaching offer to practice?*

Coaching is used in a variety of ways and across various levels within school systems to support the development of culture, professional practice or wellbeing at a group or individual level (Grant & Cavanagh, 2007b; Kauffman, 2006; Madden et al., 2011). The focus on EPs using coaching to work directly with staff to develop their practice offers EPs a unique opportunity to diversify their practice (Adams, 2016; Goff et al., 2014). It was felt that coaching staff led to feelings of empowerment, supported them to make positive changes and provided opportunities for reflection on their practice as it gave them a safe space to discuss their thoughts with an objective third party. Although supporting staff through coaching may inadvertently affect students as the teacher makes changes to their practice, coaching may be unique as it differs from EPs working with children and young people both directly (through casework) and indirectly (through working with staff in consultation). To illustrate this point, reference should be made to the original definition of coaching given in this research:

Coaching is a form of helping relationship, in which the coach builds a relationship with the coachee in order to facilitate the development of the coachee's performance, learning, and support them to make positive changes in their life and situation.

As can be seen from this definition, the focus of this form of coaching is on developing professional practice through improving performance, providing opportunities for learning and making positive changes. At present, no other form of EP practice enables this exclusivity of focus.

However, as previously outlined in 2.4, there are similarities when comparing coaching to supervision (Lord et al., 2008) as “there are a number of common factors which help to facilitate change in any form of helping conversation” (Ryan, 2018, p.25). Similarly, a number of EPs within this research suggested that coaching could be used within supervision. However, coaching is a more collaborative and less expert process than supervision, in which the coach “need only have expertise in facilitating learning and performance enhancement” (Grant, 2001, p.7).

In summary, coaching offers EPs the opportunity to:

- Diversify their practice
- Focus on supporting staff performance and wellbeing
- Adopt a non-expert approach to facilitating staff learning and performance.

8.4.2 How is coaching assimilated into practice?

Research suggests that coaches often take an eclectic approach to practice, rather than using a single technique or model in coaching (Devine et al., 2012; Whybrow & Palmer 2006) and draw on different psychological tools and approaches. However, this eclecticism has significant implications for monitoring the profession of coaching psychology within education. Without an agreed definition and general consensus about what coaching psychology constitutes, there cannot be a common language amongst professionals. For example, CBT is a well-established intervention with an agreed framework and clear processes for professionals to follow in order to carry it out (e.g. Delgadillo et al., 2018). For coaching, despite its associated models (Allen, 2016) and established roots in humanistic and person-centred approaches (amongst others) (Stober, 2006), there continues to be variation in what EPs understand it to be and how it is practiced. This could have significant implications for the role of the EP.

Gersch (2009) argued that, in order for the work of EPs to be considered valuable, the role needs to be communicated using clear language and carried out in such a way that they are able to provide solutions to the problems encountered. If there is not a clear conceptualisation of coaching, how can EPs explain it to schools? Frederickson (2002) also argued that the strength of the EP profession is its grounding in theoretical principles, which are then applied in practice. EPs are encouraged and expected to engage in evidence-based practice, which provides a distinctive underpinning to their practice (Boyle & Lauchlan, 2009). If there is not an established evidence base for coaching, how can it and the EP role be considered valuable?

In summary, in EP practice, coaching:

- Is used in different ways
- Is not clearly understood
- May not add value to the role

8.4.3 Where next for coaching in educational psychology?

As previously highlighted in 8.1.2 and 8.4.1, there is ambiguity regarding the practice of coaching in educational psychology. This has significant implications for the future of coaching when considering the development of an evidence base and how it can be introduced to EP training and practice.

The need for clarity and greater awareness of coaching could be mediated by introducing coaching to doctoral training programmes. However, consideration needs to be given to the capacity of the curriculum and how coaching could be taught effectively. Furthermore, without a strong evidence base it will be difficult for EPs to clearly articulate why coaching may be of value to schools and to encourage schools to invest their time in it, which would limit its development and use in education systems. As highlighted by Gibbs and Papps (2017), funding is now increasingly being delegated to schools and decisions about how EPs work are now more often being determined by schools.

This again underlines the importance of EPs being able to present coaching as a valuable approach to practice. In this research, EPs reported that coaching was often not perceived as a priority for investment. Additionally, some schools were less willing to use EPs as coaches. In practice, Cameron (2006) stated that the demand for EPs to provide advice and complete statutory work may lead to EPs losing sight of potential opportunities for change. It could be argued that coaching is a potential mechanism for change and that its use in schools is limited by competing demands on EPs time.

In summary, the future of coaching in EP practice will depend on:

- Developing an awareness of coaching
- Introducing coaching to doctoral training programmes
- Developing its evidence base.

8.5 Avenues for Future Research

Coaching psychology is an emerging discipline in educational psychology (Grant & Cavanagh, 2007a) and is “on the way to developing into a coherent area of research and practice” (Madden et al., 2011, p.96). As such, developing an evidence base for coaching in educational psychology remains a priority. Green (2008) highlighted how, if evidence based practice is required, it is necessary to gather evidence based on actual practice.

This research found that:

- There is a need for greater clarity in the understanding and use of coaching
- There are a number of barriers to the use of coaching in practice
- Coaching will likely have a future in educational psychology
- It is important to continue to develop an evidence base for the practice of coaching in educational psychology.

Systematic research into how coaching is used, including the models and approaches applied in practice, would provide greater clarity about its use in educational psychology. Additionally, research into the impact of coaching would contribute to the development of a more robust evidence base and provide a means by which coaching can be more consistently integrated into EP practice.

This could be achieved by conducting a longitudinal study which focuses on how coaching is introduced, develops and evaluated over time. Additionally, case studies could provide information about what is practiced in coaching and how frameworks and psychological models are used. This research demonstrated that coaching is seen as a practice which can be integrated into consultation, but did not explore whether consultation could be integrated into coaching. This could also represent an avenue for future research. Similarly, as coaching appears to sometimes be offered as a standalone single session intervention, it would be of interest to explore the effect of this practice.

The findings of this research were presented to an independent EPS in November 2018. The feedback from this presentation (Appendix 19) suggested that EPs valued the opportunity to consider their practice in greater depth and the findings contributed to their thinking about how to support schools in the future. Therefore, it can be concluded that the findings of this research could help support the development of practice for EPs who are considering using or are already engaged with coaching. It is additionally hoped that the findings of this research can be shared at a future professional conference.

8.6 Concluding Comments

Coaching continues to be an emerging area of practice in the field of educational psychology. This research has addressed a gap in the literature by providing an insight into the views EPs have of coaching and the experience of those using it. This research suggests a lack of clarity regarding the understanding and use of coaching in educational psychology. Moreover, the use of coaching is affected by barriers such as time, opportunities and EPs' feelings of professional confidence. Furthermore, without a clear evidence base, coaching's application in schools will continue to be limited.

It is my opinion that the priorities for the future of coaching in educational psychology are:

- Clear communication of how it is used within schools
- Establishing how it is used alongside or within consultation
- Continued development of its evidence base
- Ensuring that coaching training is robust and introduced to doctoral courses
- EPs finding the time and opportunities to use coaching
- EPs being able to effectively sell coaching to schools.

The findings of this research link with previous studies into coaching and may be useful for informing the future practice of EPs. Specifically, the findings highlight the importance of continued research into coaching and provide support for the development of a more robust evidence base, which in turn will contribute to the expansion of coaching within the profession. It is hoped that this research will support the continued use of coaching and inform the future work of EPs who may be interested in diversifying their practice.

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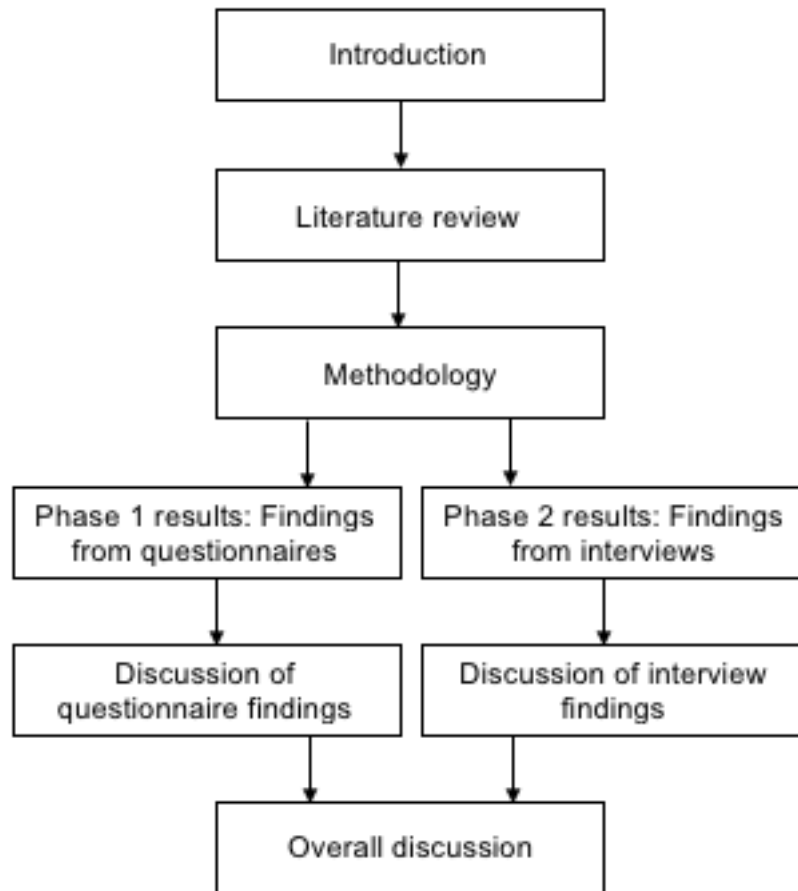
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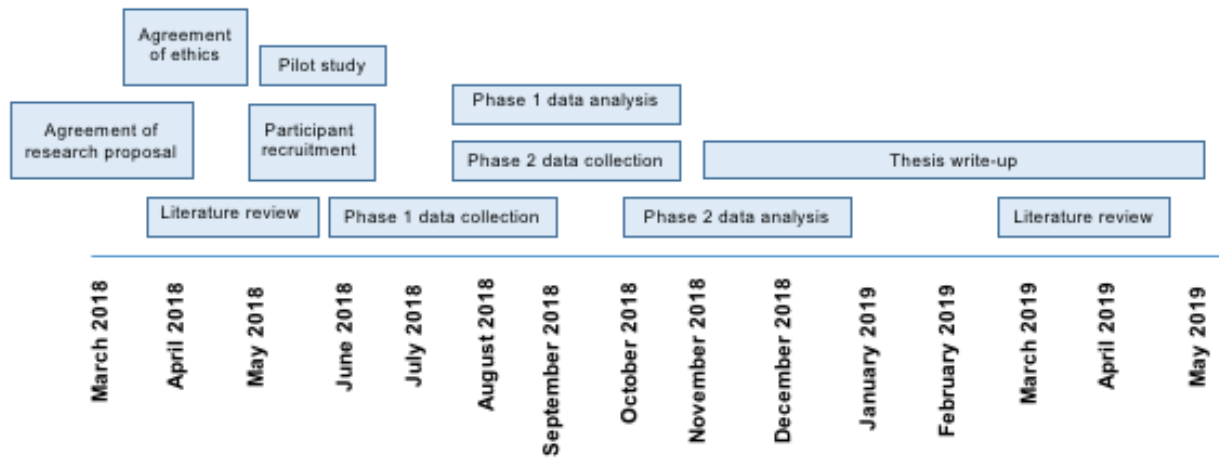
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Appendix 2 Thesis Timeline



PROFESSIONALS' VIEWS OF COACHING IN EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

QUESTIONNAIRE

Your Information

Please select your highest level of experience in Educational Psychology:

	Trainee Educational Psychologist
	Educational Psychologist
	Senior Educational Psychologist
	Principal Educational Psychologist
	Retired/Semi-Retired Educational Psychologist
	Other

What form of qualification in Educational Psychology do you have?

	Master's Degree
	Professional Doctorate (in progress)
	Professional Doctorate (completed)
	Other (please specify)

How many years have you worked as an Educational Psychologist?

	Currently in training
	0-2 years qualified
	3-5 years qualified
	6-8 years qualified
	9-12 years qualified
	13-15 years qualified
	More than 15 years qualified

Coaching in Practice

The following questions will focus on your views of coaching.

Please read the following definition of coaching, which is an amalgamation of various coaching definitions in the current literature:

“Coaching is a form of helping relationship, in which the coach builds a relationship with the coachee in order to facilitate the development of the coachee's performance, learning, and support them to make positive changes in their life and situation.”

1 To what extent do you agree that this is a good definition of coaching?

1 (not at all)	2	3	4	5 (a great deal)

Why have you given this rating?

--

2 What experience have you had of coaching?

1 (not at all)	2	3	4	5 (a great deal)

Please describe your experience of coaching to date.

--

3 To what extent do you think coaching fits with EP practice?

1 (not at all)	2	3	4	5 (a great deal)

4 To what extent do you feel that coaching is distinctive from educational psychology consultation?

1 (not at all)	2	3	4	5 (a great deal)

Why have you given this rating?

--

5 How much of a positive impact do you feel coaching can have in EP practice?

1 (not at all)	2	3	4	5 (a great deal)

6 How much of a negative impact do you feel coaching can have in EP practice?

1 (not at all)	2	3	4	5 (a great deal)

The Future of Coaching

The following questions invite you to consider the future of coaching in educational psychology.

7 How do you see the future of coaching in educational psychology developing?

--

8 To what extent do you believe that coaching will play a role in educational psychology practice in the future?

1 (not at all)	2	3	4	5 (a great deal)

9 Do you think coaching should be included in EP training?

Yes	No	Maybe

Please explain why you think this

--

10 Would you like to make any further comments about the use of coaching in educational psychology?

--

Final Questions

11 Do you currently use coaching?

Yes	No

12 If you currently use coaching, would you be willing to participate in a further interview to explore your experiences of using coaching in practice?

Yes	No

If you are interested in participating in an interview to explore your experiences of using coaching, please provide your email address below.

--

Thank you for your time.

Appendix 4 Recruitment Email

Opportunity for Research Participation

My name is Sophie Fanshawe, and I am a second year Trainee Educational Psychologist at the University of Exeter. I am conducting research to explore the link between educational psychology and coaching.

If you are interested in participating in this research, you will be asked to complete a brief online questionnaire, which should take no more than 15 to 20 minutes.

The questionnaire will explore your views and perceptions of coaching as an approach to practice. You do not need to have any knowledge of coaching in order to participate.

If you would like to contribute to this research, you can access the questionnaire here: <https://goo.gl/forms/uUi3Dx9yfldqyfs2>

The findings of this will contribute towards my doctoral thesis research, and so I would be hugely grateful for anyone who is able to volunteer their time to participate.

Thank you in advance, and if you have any questions please do not hesitate to contact me: sf409@exeter.ac.uk

Best wishes,
Sophie

**Exploring professionals' views and experiences of coaching
in educational psychology**

You are invited to take part in the above study. Before you decide to do so, it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully.

The purpose of this research is to explore the link between educational psychology and coaching by asking educational psychologists to complete an online questionnaire.

This study is being conducted by Sophie Fanshawe, trainee educational psychologist, at the University of Exeter (sf409@exeter.ac.uk), supervised by Professor Brahm Norwich (B.Norwich@exeter.ac.uk) and Margie Tunbridge (M.A.Tunbridge@exeter.ac.uk).

It is up to you to decide whether or not you would like to take part in this research. If you do decide to participate, you will be required to give your consent to do so. You can withdraw from the study at any time by contacting the researcher. You do not have to give a reason for this.

What the study involves:

You will be required to complete an online questionnaire, which will take approximately 30 minutes to complete. The questions will relate to:

- Your understanding of coaching
- Your experience of coaching
- Your views of coaching, both positive and negative
- The future of coaching

Your responses will be confidential and no identifying information such as your email or IP address will be recorded. All information and data collected by the researcher will be kept strictly confidential, and stored in a password protected electronic format, with no identifying information associated with the files.

The findings of this research will be published as part of the researcher's doctoral thesis, and may be submitted for further publication within an academic journal article. No identifiable information will be included in any report or publication.

This research study has been approved by the University of Exeter ethics committee.

Additional opportunities for participation:

Following completion of this interview, the researcher may contact you to ask whether you would like to participate in a second phase of the study. This will involve meeting with the researcher to complete a second interview, which will focus on your experience of coaching. Further information about this research will be given at this time.

Thank you for your participation.

ELECTRONIC CONSENT: Please select your choice below.

Clicking on the "agree" button below indicates that:

- You have read the above information
- You voluntarily agree to participate
- You are at least 18 years of age

If you do not wish to participate in the research study, please decline participation by clicking on the "disagree" button.

- agree
- disagree

Next

STEP 1	
Identification of categories	Researcher reviewed participants' free-text responses
STEP 2	
Allocation of constructs to categories	Researcher grouped themes identified from free-text responses
STEP 3	
Tabulation of results	Grouped themes were collapsed into broader thematic categories
STEP 4	
Establishing the reliability of the category system	Researcher consulted with colleague to review the 'fit' of grouped themes with broader categories
STEP 5	
Summary by meanings	Categories were converted into tabular form
STEP 6	
Summary by illustrative example	Two to four quotes were included as illustrative examples for each category
STEP 7	
Summary of frequency of construct occurrence in each category	Frequencies were reported within analysis of results

**Exploring professionals' views and experiences of coaching
in educational psychology**

You are invited to take part in the second phase of the above research project. Before you decide to do so, it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully.

Purpose of the research:

This research intends to explore the link between educational psychology and coaching by conducting semi-structured interviews to gather the experiences of educational psychologists who use coaching in their practice.

It is up to you to decide whether or not you would like to take part in this research. If you do decide to participate, you will be required to give your consent to do so. You can withdraw from the study at any time. You do not have to give a reason for this.

What the study involves:

You will be required to meet with the researcher to complete a semi-structured interview, either face-to-face or via telephone. The interview will take approximately 45minutes to 1 hour to complete, and will be audio-recorded. The interview will include questions relating to:

- The context(s) in which coaching is used
- Specific aspects of coaching which are used (models and frameworks)
- Which psychological principles (if any) are applied in coaching practice
- Your opinion on the usefulness of coaching
- Exploration of any challenges you have experienced whilst using coaching

All information and interview data collected by the researcher will be kept strictly confidential. The audio recording from the interview will be stored on a password protected laptop, with no identifying information associated with the file.

The findings of this research will be published as part of the researcher's doctoral thesis, and may be submitted for further publication within an academic journal article. No identifiable information will be included in any report or publication.

This study is being conducted by Sophie Fanshawe, trainee educational psychologist, at the University of Exeter (sf409@exeter.ac.uk). Sophie is being supervised by Professor Brahm Norwich (B.Norwich@exeter.ac.uk) and Margie Tunbridge (M.A.Tunbridge@exeter.ac.uk). If you have any questions about the nature of your participation in this research, please contact Sophie in the first instance.

Thank you for your participation.

Consent Form

I have been given the opportunity to read the information sheet given to me, and I understand this information.

I, _____, give / do not give (please delete as appropriate) my consent to take part in an interview to explore my experience of using coaching in practice.

I understand that:

- All information I give will be treated as confidential.
- The researcher will make every effort to preserve my anonymity.
- Any information which I provide to the researcher will be used solely for the purposes of this research project, which may include publications.
- It is not compulsory for me to participate in this research project and, if I choose to participate, I may withdraw from the research at any time without giving a reason, up until the data is analysed by the researcher.

_____ (signature)

_____ (date)

_____ (print name)

Appendix 9

Phase 2 Interview Schedule

1	Participants given a definition of coaching		
		Is there anything further they would like to add to the definition given?	
2	In what context(s) have you used coaching?		
		Can you please provide an example?	
			What led you to select coaching as an approach in this example?
3	What specific models and/or frameworks of coaching have you used?		
		Can you please provide an example?	
			Why did you use this/these models and/or frameworks and not others?
4	What other psychological principles (e.g. PCP, SF, MI) have you incorporated into coaching?		
		Can you please provide an example?	
5	To what extent have you found coaching helpful, and in what ways?		
		In supporting/developing your own practice?	
		For those receiving coaching?	
			What has been the impact of coaching?
			What are the outcomes of coaching?
6	How have you evaluated the impact of your practice?		
		How do you know coaching is making a difference?	
		What have those you have coached said?	
7	What challenges have you experienced in using coaching?		
		Can you please provide an example?	
			How did you overcome this challenge?
8	How do you see the future of coaching in educational psychology developing?		

Appendix 10 Braun and Clarke's (2006) Six-Stage Thematic Analysis Framework

STAGE 1	
Familiarisation with data	Researcher conducted and transcribed all interviews, which were audio-recorded
STAGE 2	
Generation of initial codes	Data was put into NVIVO software and each dataset was individually coded
STAGE 3	
Identification of themes	Codes were grouped into initial themes
STAGE 4	
Review of themes	Identified themes were reviewed to ensure fidelity to the coding groups identified. These were then further grouped into higher order meta themes. The initial themes are henceforth referred to as subthemes.
STAGE 5	
Defining and naming themes	All themes were reviewed and redefined as necessary, in order to ensure accessibility and clarity in navigating and understanding the data.
STAGE 6	
Producing the report	Analysis of themes were reported. Descriptive tables and flowcharts were provided within the text, with further details provided in the appendices.

Appendix 11

Sample Transcript with Initial Codes

<p>Participants given a definition of coaching: "Coaching is a form of helping relationship, in which the coach builds a relationship with the coachee in order to facilitate the development of the coachee's performance, learning, and support them to make positive changes in their life and situation." Is there anything further you would like to add to the definition given?</p> <p>No, I think it's quite a facilitating process as well the helping relationship with us less in an expert role and I see it as empowering.</p>	<p>Toolbox OSCAR model Included in training Discursive tool Optional learning opportunity Solution-focused Client buy-in Systemic changes Scaling Would like to know more Coding Density</p>
<p>In what context(s) have you used coaching?</p> <p>Well I have just become within the last year stepped up to be the assistant principal EP and we hadn't had any management training so the learning development team were looking for people to do a programme for new managers so it started last November. It was about, it's a pilot scheme for the council really in terms of helping to manage staff but it started off being reflection, so helping managers kind of reflect on things so it started kind of on reflection, and then the lady that came in did a session - two sessions - on coaching and that seemed to fit better. Because I was the only psychologist there and there were some social workers and the coaching model seemed to fit better.</p>	<p>Toolbox Facilitating Included in training Managerial Discursive tool Optional learning opportunity Solution-focused Client buy-in Systemic changes Scaling Would like to know more Coding Density</p>
<p>What specific models and/or frameworks of coaching have you used?</p> <p>So the OSCAR model I've used. I'm not sure who it's by but the consultant lady who we saw used it. She showed us that one and the GROW model. So the OSCAR model looks at the, the OSCAR stands for Outcome, Situation, Choices and Consequences, Actions and then Review so the outcome I've used that with supervising psychologists in peer supervision and the outcome is really around what would you like to achieve from today's session and really getting down what they would like to achieve, the outcome of the piece of casework they are working on so you spend quite a lot of time actually agreeing the outcome rather than just going OK so what is you want to achieve? I think that by working through the model your outcome is very clear at the beginning and the process would flow better so she was saying, for example, I've got to see this child I don't know whether to do a cognitive assessment, I don't know if it's around her emotions, I don't know about this and there's a speech therapist and all different people are involved so I need to do something and then by really focusing it on what is it you would like to achieve from the work with the child then you're able to kind of narrow it down rather than just saying I want to do an assessment you can look at actually what that looks like and what you want to achieve and it really helped her focus and yeah maybe it's not about cognitive assessment and maybe it's not about this and it really helps you actually think yes, this is what I want to do so it's quite focused and then it clarified for her the issue.</p>	<p>Toolbox Facilitating OSCAR model Included in training Managerial Discursive tool Optional learning opportunity Solution-focused Client buy-in Systemic changes Scaling Would like to know more Coding Density</p>
<p>What other psychological principles (if any) (e.g. PCP, SF or MI techniques) have you incorporated into coaching?</p> <p>Well some of the solution focused as well, some of it's around kind of counselling type stuff around thoughts and feelings and behaviours just consultation skills as a psychologist being able to think about questions from different angles thinking about different kind of questioning techniques. We also were given a sheet about magic questions so some of the questions you ask which gives kind of that different perspective that psychologists come in from so what have you tried, what's been successful? So it's all those questioning techniques that I'm not sure what kind of model of psychology that fits in but it's kind of exploring the issue from different angles and it is kind of from the Rogers stuff around coaching.</p>	<p>Toolbox Facilitating OSCAR model Included in training Managerial Discursive tool Optional learning opportunity Solution-focused Client buy-in Scaling Would like to know more Coding Density</p>

To what extent have you found coaching useful?

In what way(s) have you found coaching useful in supporting/developing your own practice?
 In what way(s) have you found coaching useful for those receiving coaching?

Definitely a lot since I've been doing the course because like before in supervision you just kind of talk through the case so we've kind of written a new supervision policy and have been saying to the psychologists let's use a model so then you can kind of work it through it's kind of focusing them to think rather than them just coming in and offloading about kind of the case so like a model which is around supervision but then not using it for every case because but certainly if there's one they're stuck in it's kind of like let's use a model to think it through and kind of coaching helps with that because you're having a two way conversation and asking questions that you haven't thought about because when I tried it with the psychologist one of the questions was how much energy do you have for this on a scale of 1 to 10 and they quite liked that especially in schools around this time of year people often don't have a lot of energy for cases, or so who owns this problem or issue? So psychologists don't have to do everything in this assessment – other people can do stuff too so it helps them see their unique role and they're not holding the whole problem or the issue.

Toolbox
 Facilitating
 OSCAR model
 Included in training
 Managerial
 Discursive tool
 Optional learning opportunity
 Solution-focused
 Client buy-in
 Systemic changes
 Scaling
 Would like to know more
 Coding Density

How have you evaluated the impact of coaching?

Well that's something we need to work on because I suppose I have only been, I only finished the course in May, I have only tried it out a few times but I suppose I'm kind of trying out and then I'll find a model and stick to it like the OSCAR model or maybe the GROW model so it's definitely helped me when I'm perhaps in consultation say with parents in schools and it's helpful for them as well as psychologists in supervision it's helpful for staff and schools when you say come and do an assessment it's like OK well what do you want to achieve from that? You can do what's the situation, what's the choices so it's kind of having that language with schools helps different steps and on scales from 1 to 10 and kind of linking that to monitoring evaluation model around assessment that kind of links in, scaling I think works as well because schools can relate to it, parents can relate to it.

Toolbox
 Facilitating
 OSCAR model
 Included in training
 Managerial
 Discursive tool
 Optional learning opportunity
 Solution-focused
 Systemic changes
 Scaling
 Would like to know more
 Coding Density

What challenges have you experienced in using coaching?

I suppose in supervision getting the EPs to sign up to kind of talk through a problem rather than just offloading getting them to say and getting them to come to supervision and I'd like to use a model because you know I'd like them to use a different technique so I don't want to impose only using the OSCAR technique or using a coaching model so I suppose it depends is it for my benefit I'm doing it or is it for the EP, do they want it for them – they might just want to tell me what to do so I suppose it's a barrier in terms of who's it for, is it for my benefit or their benefit?

Toolbox
 Facilitating
 OSCAR model
 Included in training
 Managerial
 Discursive tool
 Optional learning opportunity
 Solution-focused
 Client buy-in
 Systemic changes
 Scaling
 Would like to know more
 Coding Density

Do you see a future for coaching in educational psychology?

Yes. I think it should be on the course, whether it's for people having their one to one supervision with their colleagues, definitely having a framework that can be tapped into rather than just having supervision for the sake of it or choosing particular cases that are a sticking point or that are struggling with and really working through a model with it. So I think it should be coaching models should be an option to people to learn it and then try it out and then they're got it in their toolbox because it's not just, I went on this course for as part of my management to use it with my psychologists but actually you can adapt that conversation you can use it with schools, with parents, with young people because then it's the language it's nice and it is facilitative and it's not just I'm the expert this is what you need to do.

It's not just about supervision too so you can use it in supervision but it gives you more value in time because you're able to have a two-way conversation rather than here's my problem I want you to give me an answer. I think coaching gives you different skills to think about. Obviously because in supervision you do all your active listening and reflecting back and summarising but it's about the type of questions you kind of ask and reflecting back what that means, it's important for the coachees.

Well I'm still fairly new to it but definitely the models I've seen and what I've seen of it I like it and it's definitely I'd like to know more about it because I've only done two courses on it. In terms of taking it further it's definitely embedding it and then moving to a new job it's for supervision to have those coaching conversations.

Toolbox
 Facilitating
 OSCAR model
 Included in training
 Managerial
 Discursive tool
 Optional learning opportunity
 Solution-focused
 Client buy-in
 Systemic changes
 Scaling
 Would like to know more
 Coding Density

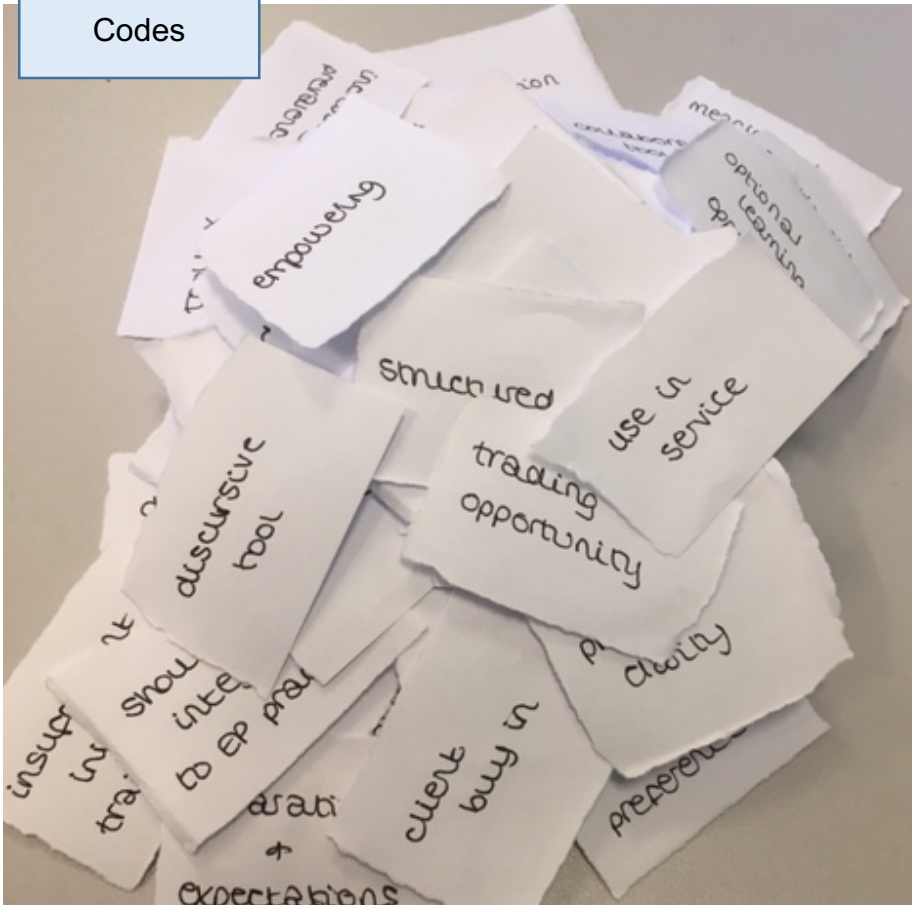
Appendix 12 Frequency of Codes

Code	Frequency of Quotes
ACT approaches	1
Before and after	3
Building relationship with client	2
Builds on consultation skills	2
Caplan's MH consultation approach	1
CBT approaches	3
Choice theory	1
Client buy in	3
Client changes	1
Co-construction	1
Coachee-led	4
Combined with observations	4
Confidence	2
Constructionism	1
Consultation skills	2
Counselling skills	2
CPD	2
Curiosity	1
Dependency	1
Depends on outcome focus	1
Developing relationship	1
Developing understanding	1
Discursive tool	1
Emotional transference	1
Empowering	7
ENABLE framework	2
Enables learning	2
EP confidence	2
Ethical boundaries	1
Evaluation form	3
Facilitating	3
Fluidity in following structures	1
Formal evaluation session	1
Future-focused	2
Goal-oriented approach	1
GROW model	3

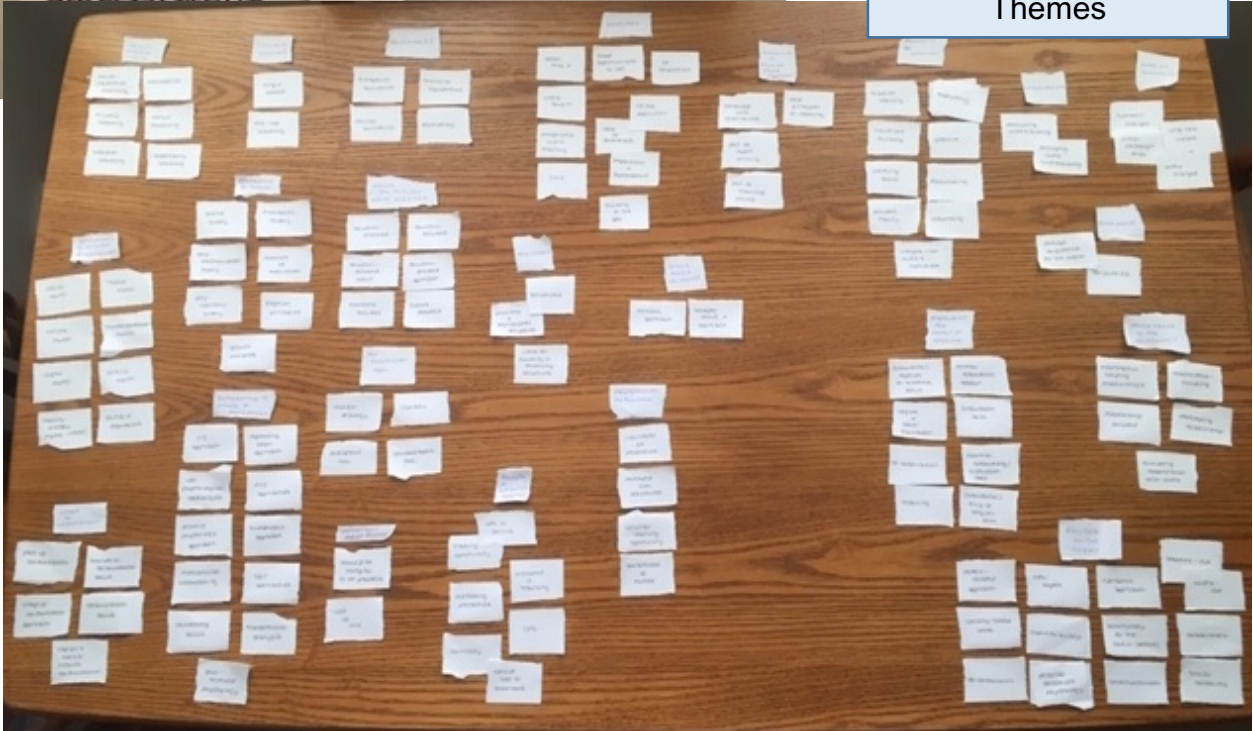
Growth mindset	1
Identity-based work	1
IGROW	2
Included in training	1
Increasing prevalence	1
Individual EP preference	1
Individualised	1
Influences thinking	2
Informal questioning	4
Insight into client's experiences	1
Insufficient initial training	2
Lack of awareness	2
Listening skills	1
Long-term impact	2
Managerial	3
Meaningful helping relationship	1
Motivational interviewing	2
Narrative approach	1
Need opportunities to use	2
No one definition	1
Non-expert	2
One-off coaching	1
Only if long(er) term	1
Opportunity for client	3
Optional learning opportunity	1
OSCAR model	2
Outcome-focused	1
Parent coaching	1
Part of consultation	3
Part of training process	3
PCP approach	2
Person-centred approach	1
Positive	1
Preparation and expectations	1
Provides a framework	3
Provides clarity	2
Psychological techniques	1
Re-observation	1
Reality therapy model	1

Reflecting team approach	1
Relationship-building	2
Rogers principles	1
Scaling	2
School buy in	4
Self-determination theory	1
Self-efficacy theory	1
Senior leadership coaching	2
Should be integral to practice	5
Single session	1
Social constructs	1
Solution-focused	10
Solution-focused approach	1
Solution-oriented	1
SPACE model	1
Structured	1
Student coaching	4
Supervisory coaching	1
Systemic changes	1
Teacher coaching	5
TGROW model	1
Therapeutic boundaries	1
Thinking on the spot	1
Time	5
Toolbox	2
Toolkit analogy	2
Trading opportunity	5
Transactional analysis	1
Transtheoretical model	1
Use in service	1
Used principles of coaching	1
USP of role	1
Wagner consultation approach	1
Wellbeing	1
Would like to know more	1

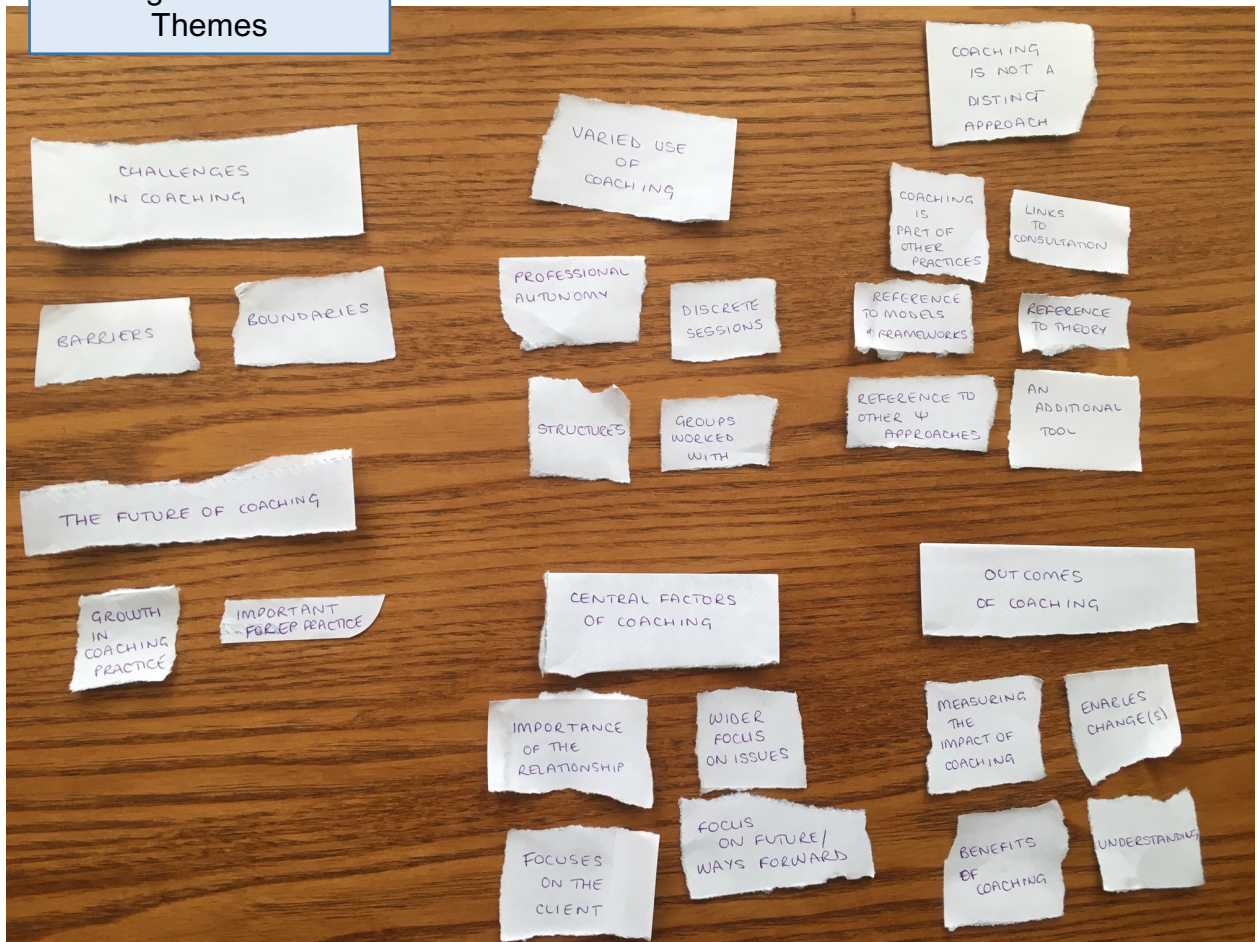
Codes



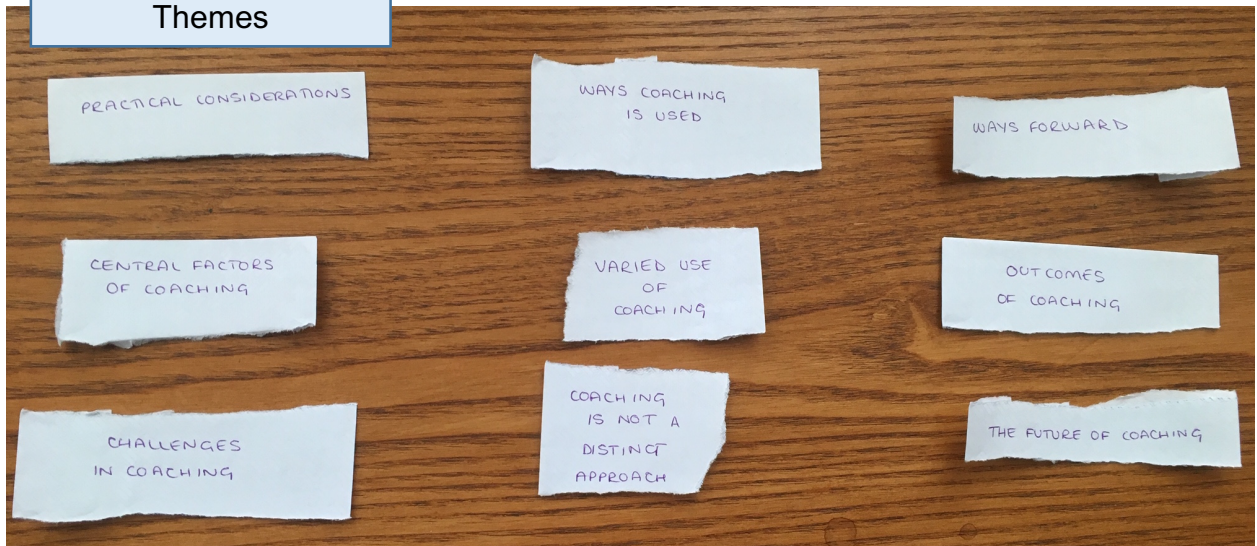
Codes and Emergent Themes



Emergent and Main Themes



Main and Global Themes



Appendix 14 Ethical Approval Certificate



GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

St Luke's Campus
Heavitree Road
Exeter UK EX1 2LU

<http://socialsciences.exeter.ac.uk/education/>

CERTIFICATE OF ETHICAL APPROVAL

Title of Project: Exploring professionals' views and experiences of coaching in educational psychology

Researcher(s) name: Sophie Fanshawe

Supervisor(s): Brahm Norwich & Margie Tunbridge

This project has been approved for the period

From: 19/04/2018

To: 31/07/2019

Ethics Committee approval reference: D/17/18/40

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Chris Boyle", enclosed in a thin black rectangular box.

Signature: _____ Date: 19/4/18
(Dr Christopher Boyle, Graduate School of Education Ethics Officer)

Appendix 15 Ethics Application Form

COLLEGE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES

When completing this form please remember that the purpose of the document is to clearly explain the ethical considerations of the research being undertaken. As a generic form it has been constructed to cover a wide-range of different projects so some sections may not seem relevant to you. Please include the information which addresses any ethical considerations for your particular project which will be needed by the SSIS Ethics Committee to approve your proposal.

Guidance on all aspects of the SSIS Ethics application process can be found on the SSIS intranet: <https://intranet.exeter.ac.uk/socialsciences/staff/research/researchenvironmentandpolicies/ethics/>

All staff and postdoctoral students within SSIS should use this form to apply for ethical approval and then send it to one of the following email addresses:

ssis-ethics@exeter.ac.uk This email should be used by staff and postdoctoral students in Egenis, the Institute for Arab and Islamic Studies, Law, Politics, the Strategy & Security Institute, and Sociology, Philosophy, Anthropology.

gseethics@exeter.ac.uk This email should be used by staff and postdoctoral students in the Graduate School of Education.

Applicant details	
Name	Sophie Fanshawe
Department	DEdPsychology
UoE email address	sf409@exeter.ac.uk

Duration for which permission is required		
You should request approval for the entire period of your research activity. The start date should be at least one month from the date that you submit this form. Students should use the anticipated date of completion of their course as the end date of their work. Please note that <u>retrospective ethical approval will never be given.</u>		
Start date: 01/03/2018	End date: 31/07/2019	Date submitted: 13/03/2018

Students only	
All students must discuss their research intentions with their supervisor / tutor prior to submitting an application for ethical approval. The discussion may be face to face or via email.	
Prior to submitting your application in its final form to the SSIS Ethics Committee it should be approved by your first and second supervisor / dissertation supervisor / tutor. You should submit evidence of their approval with your application, e.g. a copy of their email approval.	
Student number	600010600
Programme of study	Doctor of Educational Psychology (DEdPsych)

Name of Supervisor(s)/tutors or Dissertation Tutor	Brahm Norwich & Margie Tunbridge
Have you attended any ethics training that is available to students?	Yes, I have taken part in ethics training at the University of Exeter For example, the Research Integrity Ethics and Governance workshop: http://as.exeter.ac.uk/rdp/postgraduateresearchers If yes, please give the date of the training: 01/11/2016

Certification for all submissions

I hereby certify that I will abide by the details given in this application and that I undertake in my research to respect the dignity and privacy of those participating in this research. I confirm that if my research should change radically I will complete a further ethics proposal form.

Sophie Fanshawe

Double click this box to confirm certification

Submission of this ethics proposal form confirms your acceptance of the above.

TITLE OF YOUR PROJECT

Exploring professionals' views and experiences of coaching in educational psychology

ETHICAL REVIEW BY AN EXTERNAL COMMITTEE

N/A

MENTAL CAPACITY ACT 2005

N/A

SYNOPSIS OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT

As a guide - 750 words.

Recently, a distinct sub-discipline of coaching has evolved: coaching psychology. Grant (2001) stated that “psychology is uniquely placed to make a significant contribution” to coaching (p.2). Evidence suggests that coaching is relevant to the role of the EP (Cameron & Monsen, 1998) and may represent an opportunity for EPs to diversify their practice (Adams, 2016). However, research suggests that only a minority of EPs may be engaging with coaching in their practice (Law, 2009).

To date, there has been little research on the use of coaching in education (Adams, 2016; Allan, 2007; Lofthouse, Leat & Towler, 2010), with Adams (2016) highlighting that “there is only a small number of studies examining the specific impact of coaching psychology in educational establishments” (p. 235). This statement suggests that the profession is still emerging in the field of educational psychology, and highlights the need for further research, particularly in relation to coaching psychology (Linley, 2006; Short et al., 2010).

Aims of this study:

The overall aim of this study is to obtain educational psychologists’ views of coaching, and explore the experiences of those using coaching in their practice.

Phase 1: Study 1	Online questionnaire to capture the views held by EPs
Phase 2: Study 2	Semi-structured interviews to explore EPs' experiences of using coaching

The study will be split into two phases. Each phase will address a specific aim and set of research questions.

Phase 1 of the research will focus on obtaining the views of coaching held by educational psychologists. Further to this, phase 2 of the research will explore the experiences of a selected group of educational psychologists, who report using coaching in their practice

	Phase 1: Study 1	Phase 2: Study 2
Aim	Capture the views of coaching held by educational psychologists	Explore the practical experiences of educational psychologists who use coaching in their practice
Research Questions	What views do educational psychologists have of coaching, and how do these differ?	How and why is coaching used by educational psychologists?
	What influences these views?	What specific techniques of coaching are used?
	How do educational psychologists feel that coaching can be used in practice?	How do those who use coaching experience it in practice?
	How is coaching related to, or distinct from, other practices in educational psychology?	What other aspects of psychological practice are used alongside coaching?

What is involved:

The study will take place in two phases across a period of twelve months, from the date of ethical approval until the date of thesis submission in March 2019. The proposed study will use a mixed methodology, with both quantitative and qualitative data collected through the use of questionnaires in phase 1, and qualitative data collected using individual, semi-structured interviews in phase 2 of the study.

The researcher will conduct a pilot study for both the questionnaire and interview schedules, both of which will be designed by the researcher. The questions will be revised following pilot testing.

Phase 1:

Phase 1 of the research study will use an online questionnaire, will be circulated via professional associations and web-based groups (such as EPNET or the AEP), asking educational psychologists to participate in the study. As such, the participants for phase 1 of the research will be randomly drawn from all educational psychologists who have access to the professional association and group forums through which the questionnaire will be circulated.

Phase 2:

The participant sample for phase 2 will be drawn from phase 1, as the researcher will invite educational psychologists who report to using coaching in practice to complete a semi-structured interview about their experiences of coaching.

Output:

It is hoped that the findings of this research will help to inform the evidence base of coaching practice in educational psychology. Given the relatively limited research to date, this exploratory study will endeavour to inform future research in the field.

INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH

N/A

The following sections require an assessment of possible ethical consideration in your research project. If particular sections do not seem relevant to your project please indicate this and clarify why.

RESEARCH METHODS

The proposed study will use a mixed methods design, with quantitative and qualitative data collected using an online questionnaire (phase 1), and qualitative data obtained through the completion of individual, semi-structured interviews (phase 2). The data collected will seek to address the stated research questions outlined below:

General Aim	Research Questions	Data Collection Method	Phase of Study
Capture the views of coaching held by educational psychologists	What views do EPs have of coaching, and how do these differ?	Online questionnaire	1
	What influences these views?		
	How do EPs feel that coaching can be used in practice?		
	How is coaching related to, or distinct from, other practices in educational psychology?		
Explore the practical experiences of educational psychologists who use coaching in their practice	How and why is coaching used by EPs?	Individual, semi-structured interviews	2
	What specific techniques of coaching are used?		
	How do those who use coaching experience it in practice?		
	What other aspects of psychological practice are used alongside coaching?		

Phase 1

As can be seen from the table above, phase 1 of the research will seek to capture the views of educational psychologists, through the completion of an online questionnaire. The website link for completion of the questionnaire will be circulated via professional associations and web-based groups (such as EPNET or the AEP). The questionnaire will be supported through the use of an online survey system, and will take approximately 20 minutes to complete.

The questions included will be generated from the researcher's review of existing literature and interview questions previously used. The questions will focus on areas relating to the participant's:

- Understanding of coaching
- Experience of coaching
- Views of coaching, both positive and negative
- Whether they have used coaching in practice

The questionnaire will consist of 12 overall questions, although many will be accompanied by sub-questions and/or Likert scales, which will require participants to give a rating to supplement their initial responses, and help quantify the strength of participants' views about aspects of coaching.

Quantitative data will be obtained from the phase 1 questionnaires, as a number of questionnaire items will use Likert scale response options. The use of Likert scales will help quantify the strength of participants' views about different aspects of coaching. The Likert scale data will be reported using simple descriptive statistics. Furthermore, on the basis of the hypothesis that the majority of questionnaire participants will view coaching positively, a one-tailed test will be conducted in order to analyse the questionnaire data obtained.

The test used will be the chi-square test. This test has been selected for use, as the data analysis will explore whether the question responses were significant, and provide an overall picture of the views of coaching across the participant sample.

Phase 2

Phase 2 of the research will explore the experiences of educational psychologists who report using coaching in practice, using semi-structured interviews. All interviews will be conducted on an individual basis, and in the first instance, face-to-face at a pre-agreed, confidential location. However, if it is not feasible for the researcher to meet with the participant, the possibility of telephone interviews will be offered.

The interview schedule consists of 9 core questions, which will be asked to all interviewees (see Appendix 6 for the full interview schedule). Additional prompts will support each question, allowing for more in-depth exploration of topics which arise during the interview, and to support the discussion of points specific to the interviewee. The questions will focus on information relating to:

- The context(s) in which coaching is used
- Specific aspects of coaching used (models and frameworks)
- Which psychological principles (if any) are applied in coaching practice
- The usefulness of coaching
- Challenges of coaching

Each interview will be conducted by the researcher, and is expected to last approximately 1 hour in duration. All interviews will be audio recorded and transcribed verbatim, and analysed using thematic analysis, supported by the use of NVIVO.

PARTICIPANTS

Phase 1

Participants will be recruited to the study via circulation of the website link for completion of the questionnaire via professional associations and web-based groups (such as EPNET or the AEP), and through the use of the researcher's professional contacts. All participants will be educational psychologists, either qualified or in training.

On the basis of the method of data collection selected for phase 1, it is not possible to estimate how many participants will complete the online questionnaire, although it is hoped that a sample of 50-100 participants can be obtained. An additional point of note is that there may be some degree of self-selection bias, as the participants will choose to opt-in to completing the questionnaire. This suggests that those who choose to participate may have some pre-existing knowledge or level of interest in coaching, and therefore the sample is unlikely to be truly random.

Phase 2

Participants for phase 2 will be selected for on the basis of their phase 1 survey responses, which will highlight whether or not they have used coaching in their practice. If participants state that they have used coaching, they will be contacted by the researcher and asked whether they would like to participate in phase 2 of the research. A number of the participating educational psychologists selected for phase 2 of this research will be consultants for an independent psychology service, with which the researcher works. Prior to engaging in this research, all of these independent educational psychologists will have completed a three-day coaching course, designed and delivered by a qualified educational psychologist and professional coach.

THE VOLUNTARY NATURE OF PARTICIPATION

All participants will be self-selected for participation in this research, on the basis of an information sheet which will be given by the researcher (provided below), and will be required to give their written consent to participate (provided below).

SPECIAL ARRANGEMENTS

N/A

THE INFORMED NATURE OF PARTICIPATION

Information about the study will be provided to participants in the form of information sheets (see below). All participants will be informed about their right to withdraw from the study at any time, without giving a reason, up until the data is analysed (as outlined in the consent form below).

ASSESSMENT OF POSSIBLE HARM

All participants will receive detailed information regarding the aims of the study, be required to give informed consent to participate, and will be made aware of their right to withdraw at any time. Although there is little risk of harm to participants, particular consideration will be given to the following issues:

- Maintaining confidentiality and anonymity
- Obtaining informed consent
- Consent for audio recording of interviews
- Secure storage of data

The researcher has given further consideration to the likelihood that the questions asked in both the questionnaires and/or interviews may cause distress to participants. Should any participant become distressed during the study, the researcher will offer a break, with the option to complete the interview at another time. Furthermore, if the level of distress is so great that the participant feels unable to continue, the researcher will ensure that the participant is signposted to receive professional supervision. The online questionnaire will be supplemented with additional information for participants to access support should they feel distressed or concerned in any way.

The researcher has enhanced DBS clearance through the university.

DATA PROTECTION AND STORAGE

All questionnaire data will be anonymised and stored confidentially, on a password protected computer, with no identifying information associated with the files. All SPSS data files will be stored anonymously. All of the interviews will be audio recorded, and the files will be stored anonymously. For example, the audio file for participant 1 will be saved as 'Audio 1', participant 2 as 'Audio 2' and so on. These files will be kept and used solely for transcription purposes, on a password protected computer. The files will be backed up on a secure server. All data will be deleted within one year of any final publications being made, and after a maximum of five years.

Written notes from the interviews will not contain any names or personal data, and will be destroyed after analysis. Data will be transferred to SPSS and NVIVO without names or personal details attached to raw data. All research will be presented in anonymised form.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

No commercial interests.

USER ENGAGEMENT AND FEEDBACK

N/A

INFORMATION SHEET

Phase 1 Information Sheet (online format with electronic consent):

Exploring professionals' views and experiences of coaching in educational psychology

PHASE 1 RESEARCH

You are invited to take part in the above research project. Before you decide to do so, it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully.

Purpose of the research:

This research intends to explore the link between educational psychology and coaching by asking educational psychologists to complete an online questionnaire.

It is up to you to decide whether or not you would like to take part in this research. If you do decide to participate, you will be required to give your consent to do so. You can withdraw from the study at any

time. You do not have to give a reason for this.

What the study involves:

You will be required to complete an online questionnaire, which will take approximately 30 minutes to complete. The questions will relate to:

- Your understanding of coaching
- Your experience of coaching
- Your views of coaching, both positive and negative
- The future of coaching

All information and data collected by the researcher will be kept strictly confidential, and stored on a password protected laptop, with no identifying information associated with the files.

The findings of this research will be published as part of the researcher's doctoral thesis, and may be submitted for further publication within an academic journal article. No identifiable information will be included in any report or publication.

Additional opportunities for participation:

Following completion of this interview, the researcher may contact you to ask whether you would like to participate in a second phase of the study. This will involve meeting with the researcher to complete a second interview, which will focus on your experience of coaching. Further information about this research will be given at this time.

This study is being conducted by Sophie Fanshawe, trainee educational psychologist, at the University of Exeter (sf409@exeter.ac.uk). Sophie is being supervised by Professor Brahm Norwich (B.Norwich@exeter.ac.uk) and Margie Tunbridge (M.A.Tunbridge@exeter.ac.uk). If you have any questions about the nature of your participation in this research, please contact Sophie in the first instance.

Thank you for your participation.



ELECTRONIC CONSENT: Please select your choice below.

Clicking on the "agree" button below indicates that:

- You have read the above information
- You voluntarily agree to participate
- You are at least 18 years of age

If you do not wish to participate in the research study, please decline participation by clicking on the "disagree" button.

- agree
 disagree

Next

Phase 2 Information Sheet:

Exploring professionals' views and experiences of coaching in educational psychology

PHASE 2 RESEARCH

You are invited to take part in the above research project. Before you decide to do so, it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully.

Purpose of the research:

This research intends to explore the link between educational psychology and coaching by conducting semi-structured interviews to gather the experiences of educational psychologists who use coaching in their practice.

It is up to you to decide whether or not you would like to take part in this research. If you do decide to participate, you will be required to give your consent to do so. You can withdraw from the study at any time. You do not have to give a reason for this.

What the study involves:

You will be required to meet with the researcher to complete a semi-structured interview, either face-to-face or via telephone. The interview will take approximately 45minutes to 1 hour to complete, and will be audio-recorded. The interview will include questions relating to:

- The context(s) in which coaching is used
- Specific aspects of coaching which are used (models and frameworks)

- Which psychological principles (if any) are applied in coaching practice
- Your opinion on the usefulness of coaching
- Exploration of any challenges you have experienced whilst using coaching

All information and interview data collected by the researcher will be kept strictly confidential. The audio recording from the interview will be stored on a password protected laptop, with no identifying information associated with the file.

The findings of this research will be published as part of the researcher’s doctoral thesis, and may be submitted for further publication within an academic journal article. No identifiable information will be included in any report or publication.

This study is being conducted by Sophie Fanshawe, trainee educational psychologist, at the University of Exeter (sf409@exeter.ac.uk). Sophie is being supervised by Professor Brahm Norwich (B.Norwich@exeter.ac.uk) and Margie Tunbridge (M.A.Tunbridge@exeter.ac.uk). If you have any questions about the nature of your participation in this research, please contact Sophie in the first instance.

Thank you for your participation.

CONSENT FORM

This consent form will be given to Phase 2 participants to complete, following their receipt of the information sheet, and prior to the start of the interview.

Consent Form

I have been given the opportunity to read the information sheet given to me, and I understand this information.

I, _____, give / do not give (please delete as appropriate) my consent to take part in an interview to explore my experience of using coaching in practice.

I understand that:

- All information I give will be treated as confidential.
- The researcher will make every effort to preserve my anonymity.
- Any information which I provide to the researcher will be used solely for the purposes of this research project, which may include publications.
- It is not compulsory for me to participate in this research project and, if I choose to participate, I may withdraw from the research at any time without giving a reason, up until the data is analysed by the researcher.

_____ (signature)

_____ (date)

_____ (print name)

SUBMISSION PROCEDURE

Staff and students should follow the procedure below.

In particular, students should discuss their application with their supervisor(s) / dissertation tutor / tutor and gain their approval prior to submission. Students should submit evidence of approval with their application, e.g. a copy of the supervisor's email approval.

This application form and examples of your consent form, information sheet and translations of any documents which are not written in English should be submitted by email to the SSIS Ethics Secretary via one of the following email addresses:

ssis-ethics@exeter.ac.uk This email should be used by staff and postdoctoral students in Egenis, the Institute for Arab and Islamic Studies, Law, Politics, the Strategy & Security Institute, and Sociology, Philosophy, Anthropology.

gseethics@exeter.ac.uk This email should be used by staff and postdoctoral students in the Graduate School of Education.

Appendix 16 Phase 1 Data Analysis: Statistical Outputs

Appendix 16.1 Frequency Statistics

		traineevsqual			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Trainee	43	36.1	36.1	36.1
	Qualified	76	63.9	63.9	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

		yearsexperience			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	In training	48	40.3	40.3	40.3
	Worked 0-8 years	28	23.5	23.5	63.9
	Worked 9-15+ years	43	36.1	36.1	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

		AgreeDef			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	A little	2	1.7	1.7	1.7
	To some extent	26	21.8	21.8	23.5
	A lot	50	42.0	42.0	65.5
	A great deal	41	34.5	34.5	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

		ExperienceCoaching			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None at all	28	23.5	23.5	23.5
	A little	31	26.1	26.1	49.6
	To some extent	28	23.5	23.5	73.1
	A lot	23	19.3	19.3	92.4
	A great deal	9	7.6	7.6	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

		FitsWithEPPractice			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	1	.8	.8	.8
	A little	4	3.4	3.4	4.2
	To some extent	18	15.1	15.1	19.3
	A lot	44	37.0	37.0	56.3
	A great deal	52	43.7	43.7	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

DistinctFromConsultation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	6	5.0	5.0	5.0
	A little	18	15.1	15.1	20.2
	To some extent	47	39.5	39.5	59.7
	A lot	38	31.9	31.9	91.6
	A great deal	10	8.4	8.4	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

PositiveImpact

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	A little	3	2.5	2.5	2.5
	To some extent	23	19.3	19.3	21.8
	A lot	59	49.6	49.6	71.4
	A great deal	34	28.6	28.6	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

NegativeImpact

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	80	67.2	67.2	67.2
	A little	28	23.5	23.5	90.8
	To some extent	7	5.9	5.9	96.6
	A lot	3	2.5	2.5	99.2
	A great deal	1	.8	.8	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

FutureInEPPpractice

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not at all	2	1.7	1.7	1.7
	A little	8	6.7	6.7	8.4
	To some extent	49	41.2	41.2	49.6
	A lot	38	31.9	31.9	81.5
	A great deal	22	18.5	18.5	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

IncludedInTraining

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	74	62.2	62.2	62.2
	No	4	3.4	3.4	65.5
	Maybe	41	34.5	34.5	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

UseCoaching

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	43	36.1	36.1	36.1
	No	76	63.9	63.9	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

Appendix 16.2 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
AgreeDef	119	2.00	5.00	4.0924	.79182
ExperienceCoaching	119	1.00	5.00	2.6134	1.24947
FitsWithEPPpractice	119	1.00	5.00	4.1933	.87602
DistinctFromConsultation	119	1.00	5.00	3.2353	.98037
FutureInEPPpractice	119	1.00	5.00	3.5882	.92436
IncludedInTraining	119	1.00	3.00	1.7227	.94711
UseCoaching	119	1.00	2.00	1.6387	.48242
Valid N (listwise)	119				

Appendix 16.3 Cross-tabulations (by experience)

yearsexp_grouped * AgreeDef_Grouped Crosstabulation

		AgreeDef_Grouped		Total	
		Low agreement	High agreement		
yearsexp_grouped	Less experienced	Count	1	75	76
		Expected Count	1.3	74.7	76.0
		% within yearsexp_grouped	1.3%	98.7%	100.0%
		% within AgreeDef_Grouped	50.0%	64.1%	63.9%
		% of Total	0.8%	63.0%	63.9%
	More experienced	Count	1	42	43
		Expected Count	.7	42.3	43.0
		% within yearsexp_grouped	2.3%	97.7%	100.0%
		% within AgreeDef_Grouped	50.0%	35.9%	36.1%
		% of Total	0.8%	35.3%	36.1%
Total	Count	2	117	119	
	Expected Count	2.0	117.0	119.0	
	% within yearsexp_grouped	1.7%	98.3%	100.0%	
	% within AgreeDef_Grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	1.7%	98.3%	100.0%	

yearsexp_grouped * experiencecoaching_grouped Crosstabulation

		experiencecoaching_grouped			
		Low agreement	High agreement	Total	
yearsexp_grouped	Less experienced	Count	45	31	76
		Expected Count	37.7	38.3	76.0
		% within yearsexp_grouped	59.2%	40.8%	100.0%
		% within experiencecoaching_grouped	76.3%	51.7%	63.9%
		% of Total	37.8%	26.1%	63.9%
	More experienced	Count	14	29	43
		Expected Count	21.3	21.7	43.0
		% within yearsexp_grouped	32.6%	67.4%	100.0%
		% within experiencecoaching_grouped	23.7%	48.3%	36.1%
		% of Total	11.8%	24.4%	36.1%
Total	Count	59	60	119	
	Expected Count	59.0	60.0	119.0	
	% within yearsexp_grouped	49.6%	50.4%	100.0%	
	% within experiencecoaching_grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	49.6%	50.4%	100.0%	

yearsexp_grouped * FitsWithEPPpractice_Grouped Crosstabulation

		FitsWithPractice_Grouped			
		Low agreement	High agreement	Total	
yearsexp_grouped	Less experienced	Count	4	72	76
		Expected Count	3.2	72.8	76.0
		% within yearsexp_grouped	5.3%	94.7%	100.0%
		% within FitsWithEPPpractice_Grouped	80.0%	63.2%	63.9%
		% of Total	3.4%	60.5%	63.9%
	More experienced	Count	1	42	43
		Expected Count	1.8	41.2	43.0
		% within yearsexp_grouped	2.3%	97.7%	100.0%
		% within FitsWithEPPpractice_Grouped	20.0%	36.8%	36.1%
		% of Total	0.8%	35.3%	36.1%

Total	Count	5	114	119
	Expected Count	5.0	114.0	119.0
	% within yearsexp_grouped	4.2%	95.8%	100.0%
	% within FitsWithEPPpractice_Grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	4.2%	95.8%	100.0%

yearsexp_grouped * DistinctFromConsultation_Grouped Crosstabulation

		DistinctFromC_Grouped		Total	
		Low agreement	High Agreement		
yearsexp_grouped	Less experienced	Count	16	60	76
		Expected Count	15.3	60.7	76.0
		% within yearsexp_grouped	21.1%	78.9%	100.0%
		% within DistinctFromConsultation_Grouped	66.7%	63.2%	63.9%
		% of Total	13.4%	50.4%	63.9%
	More experienced	Count	8	35	43
		Expected Count	8.7	34.3	43.0
		% within yearsexp_grouped	18.6%	81.4%	100.0%
		% within DistinctFromConsultation_Grouped	33.3%	36.8%	36.1%
		% of Total	6.7%	29.4%	36.1%
Total	Count	24	95	119	
	Expected Count	24.0	95.0	119.0	
	% within yearsexp_grouped	20.2%	79.8%	100.0%	
	% within DistinctFromConsultation_Grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	20.2%	79.8%	100.0%	

yearsexp_grouped * PosImpact_Grouped Crosstabulation

		PosImpact_Grouped		Total	
		Low agreement	High agreement		
yearsexp_grouped	Less experienced	Count	2	74	76
		Expected Count	1.9	74.1	76.0
		% within yearsexp_grouped	2.6%	97.4%	100.0%
		% within PosImpact_Grouped	66.7%	63.8%	63.9%
		% of Total	1.7%	62.2%	63.9%
	More experienced	Count	1	42	43
		Expected Count	1.1	41.9	43.0
		% within yearsexp_grouped	2.3%	97.7%	100.0%
		% within PosImpact_Grouped	33.3%	36.2%	36.1%
		% of Total	0.8%	35.3%	36.1%
Total	Count	3	116	119	
	Expected Count	3.0	116.0	119.0	
	% within yearsexp_grouped	2.5%	97.5%	100.0%	
	% within PosImpact_Grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	2.5%	97.5%	100.0%	

yearsexp_grouped * NegImpact_Grouped Crosstabulation

		NegImpact_Grouped		Total	
		Low agreement	High agreement		
yearsexp_grouped	Less experienced	Count	72	4	76
		Expected Count	69.0	7.0	76.0
		% within yearsexp_grouped	94.7%	5.3%	100.0%
		% within NegImpact_Grouped	66.7%	36.4%	63.9%
		% of Total	60.5%	3.4%	63.9%
	More experienced	Count	36	7	43
		Expected Count	39.0	4.0	43.0
		% within yearsexp_grouped	83.7%	16.3%	100.0%
		% within NegImpact_Grouped	33.3%	63.6%	36.1%
		% of Total	30.3%	5.9%	36.1%

Total	Count	108	11	119
	Expected Count	108.0	11.0	119.0
	% within yearsexp_grouped	90.8%	9.2%	100.0%
	% within NeglImpact_Grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	90.8%	9.2%	100.0%

yearsexp_grouped * Future_Grouped Crosstabulation

		Future_Grouped		Total	
		Low agreement	High agreement		
yearsexp_grouped	Less experienced	Count	9	67	76
		Expected Count	6.4	69.6	76.0
		% within yearsexp_grouped	11.8%	88.2%	100.0%
		% within Future_Grouped	90.0%	61.5%	63.9%
		% of Total	7.6%	56.3%	63.9%
	More experienced	Count	1	42	43
		Expected Count	3.6	39.4	43.0
		% within yearsexp_grouped	2.3%	97.7%	100.0%
		% within Future_Grouped	10.0%	38.5%	36.1%
		% of Total	0.8%	35.3%	36.1%
Total	Count	10	109	119	
	Expected Count	10.0	109.0	119.0	
	% within yearsexp_grouped	8.4%	91.6%	100.0%	
	% within Future_Grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	8.4%	91.6%	100.0%	

yearsexp_grouped * InclTraining_grouped Crosstabulation

		InclTraining_grouped		Total	
		Yes or maybe	No		
yearsexp_grouped	Less experienced	Count	48	28	76
		Expected Count	49.8	26.2	76.0
		% within yearsexp_grouped	63.2%	36.8%	100.0%
		% within InclTraining_grouped	61.5%	68.3%	63.9%
		% of Total	40.3%	23.5%	63.9%
	More experienced	Count	30	13	43
		Expected Count	28.2	14.8	43.0

	% within yearsexp_grouped	69.8%	30.2%	100.0%
	% within InclTraining_grouped	38.5%	31.7%	36.1%
	% of Total	25.2%	10.9%	36.1%
Total	Count	78	41	119
	Expected Count	78.0	41.0	119.0
	% within yearsexp_grouped	65.5%	34.5%	100.0%
	% within InclTraining_grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	65.5%	34.5%	100.0%

YearsWorked * UseCoaching

Crosstab

Count

		UseCoaching		Total
		Yes	No	
YearsWorked	Currently in training	9	39	48
	0-2 years	2	6	8
	3-5 years	2	6	8
	6-8 years	7	5	12
	9-12 years	3	2	5
	13-15 years	5	3	8
	More than 15 years	15	15	30
Total		43	76	119

Appendix 16.4 Cross-tabulations (by qualification)

traineevsqual * AgreeDef_Grouped Crosstabulation

		AgreeDef_Grouped		Total	
		Low agreement	High agreement		
traineevsqual	Trainee	Count	1	42	43
		Expected Count	.7	42.3	43.0
		% within traineevsqual	2.3%	97.7%	100.0%
		% within AgreeDef_Grouped	50.0%	35.9%	36.1%
		% of Total	0.8%	35.3%	36.1%
	Qualified	Count	1	75	76
		Expected Count	1.3	74.7	76.0
		% within traineevsqual	1.3%	98.7%	100.0%
		% within AgreeDef_Grouped	50.0%	64.1%	63.9%
		% of Total	0.8%	63.0%	63.9%
Total	Count	2	117	119	
	Expected Count	2.0	117.0	119.0	
	% within traineevsqual	1.7%	98.3%	100.0%	
	% within AgreeDef_Grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	1.7%	98.3%	100.0%	

yearsexperience * experiencecoaching_grouped Crosstabulation

		experiencecoaching_grouped		Total	
		Low agreement	High agreement		
yearsexperience	In training	Count	30	18	48
		Expected Count	23.8	24.2	48.0
		% within yearsexperience	62.5%	37.5%	100.0%
		% within experiencecoaching_grouped	50.8%	30.0%	40.3%
		% of Total	25.2%	15.1%	40.3%
	Worked 0-8 years	Count	15	13	28
		Expected Count	13.9	14.1	28.0
		% within yearsexperience	53.6%	46.4%	100.0%
		% within experiencecoaching_grouped	25.4%	21.7%	23.5%
		% of Total	12.6%	10.9%	23.5%

Worked 9-15+ years	Count	14	29	43
	Expected Count	21.3	21.7	43.0
	% within yearsexperience	32.6%	67.4%	100.0%
	% within experiencecoaching_grouped	23.7%	48.3%	36.1%
	% of Total	11.8%	24.4%	36.1%
Total	Count	59	60	119
	Expected Count	59.0	60.0	119.0
	% within yearsexperience	49.6%	50.4%	100.0%
	% within experiencecoaching_grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	49.6%	50.4%	100.0%

traineevsqual * FitsWithEPPractice_Grouped Crosstabulation

		FitsWithPractice_Grouped		Total	
		Low agreement	High agreement		
traineevsqual	Trainee	Count	4	39	43
		Expected Count	1.8	41.2	43.0
		% within traineevsqual	9.3%	90.7%	100.0%
		% within FitsWithEPPractice_Grouped	80.0%	34.2%	36.1%
		% of Total	3.4%	32.8%	36.1%
	Qualified	Count	1	75	76
Total	Qualified	Expected Count	3.2	72.8	76.0
		% within traineevsqual	1.3%	98.7%	100.0%
		% within FitsWithEPPractice_Grouped	20.0%	65.8%	63.9%
		% of Total	0.8%	63.0%	63.9%
		Count	5	114	119
	Expected Count	5.0	114.0	119.0	
Total	Total	% within traineevsqual	4.2%	95.8%	100.0%
		% within FitsWithEPPractice_Grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	4.2%	95.8%	100.0%

traineevsqual * DistinctFromConsultation_Grouped Crosstabulation

		DistinctFromConsultation_Grouped			
		Low agreement	High agreement	Total	
traineevsqual	Trainee	Count	11	32	43
		Expected Count	8.7	34.3	43.0
		% within traineevsqual	25.6%	74.4%	100.0%
		% within DistinctFromConsultation_Grouped	45.8%	33.7%	36.1%
		% of Total	9.2%	26.9%	36.1%
	Qualified	Count	13	63	76
		Expected Count	15.3	60.7	76.0
		% within traineevsqual	17.1%	82.9%	100.0%
		% within DistinctFromConsultation_Grouped	54.2%	66.3%	63.9%
		% of Total	10.9%	52.9%	63.9%
Total	Count	24	95	119	
	Expected Count	24.0	95.0	119.0	
	% within traineevsqual	20.2%	79.8%	100.0%	
	% within DistinctFromConsultation_Grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	20.2%	79.8%	100.0%	

traineevsqual * PosImpact_Grouped Crosstabulation

		PosImpact_Grouped			
		Low agreement	High agreement	Total	
traineevsqual	Trainee	Count	2	41	43
		Expected Count	1.1	41.9	43.0
		% within traineevsqual	4.7%	95.3%	100.0%
		% within PosImpact_Grouped	66.7%	35.3%	36.1%
		% of Total	1.7%	34.5%	36.1%
	Qualified	Count	1	75	76
		Expected Count	1.9	74.1	76.0
		% within traineevsqual	1.3%	98.7%	100.0%
		% within PosImpact_Grouped	33.3%	64.7%	63.9%
		% of Total	0.8%	63.0%	63.9%
Total	Count	3	116	119	

Expected Count	3.0	116.0	119.0
% within traineevsqual	2.5%	97.5%	100.0%
% within PosImpact_Grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
% of Total	2.5%	97.5%	100.0%

traineevsqual * NegImpact_Grouped Crosstabulation

		NegImpact_Grouped		Total	
		Low agreement	High agreement		
traineevsqual	Trainee	Count	40	3	43
		Expected Count	39.0	4.0	43.0
		% within traineevsqual	93.0%	7.0%	100.0%
		% within NegImpact_Grouped	37.0%	27.3%	36.1%
		% of Total	33.6%	2.5%	36.1%
	Qualified	Count	68	8	76
		Expected Count	69.0	7.0	76.0
		% within traineevsqual	89.5%	10.5%	100.0%
		% within NegImpact_Grouped	63.0%	72.7%	63.9%
		% of Total	57.1%	6.7%	63.9%
Total	Count	108	11	119	
	Expected Count	108.0	11.0	119.0	
	% within traineevsqual	90.8%	9.2%	100.0%	
	% within NegImpact_Grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	90.8%	9.2%	100.0%	

traineevsqual * Future_Grouped Crosstabulation

		Future_Grouped		Total	
		Low agreement	High agreement		
traineevsqual	Trainee	Count	5	38	43
		Expected Count	3.6	39.4	43.0
		% within traineevsqual	11.6%	88.4%	100.0%
		% within Future_Grouped	50.0%	34.9%	36.1%
		% of Total	4.2%	31.9%	36.1%
	Qualified	Count	5	71	76
		Expected Count	6.4	69.6	76.0
		% within traineevsqual	6.6%	93.4%	100.0%
		% within Future_Grouped	50.0%	65.1%	63.9%
		% of Total	4.2%	59.7%	63.9%

Total	Count	10	109	119
	Expected Count	10.0	109.0	119.0
	% within traineevsqual	8.4%	91.6%	100.0%
	% within Future_Grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	8.4%	91.6%	100.0%

traineevsqual * InclTraining_grouped Crosstabulation

		InclTraining_grouped		Total	
		Yes or Maybe	No		
traineevsqual	Trainee	Count	27	16	43
		Expected Count	28.2	14.8	43.0
		% within traineevsqual	62.8%	37.2%	100.0%
		% within InclTraining_grouped	34.6%	39.0%	36.1%
		% of Total	22.7%	13.4%	36.1%
	Qualified	Count	51	25	76
		Expected Count	49.8	26.2	76.0
		% within traineevsqual	67.1%	32.9%	100.0%
		% within InclTraining_grouped	65.4%	61.0%	63.9%
		% of Total	42.9%	21.0%	63.9%
Total	Count	78	41	119	
	Expected Count	78.0	41.0	119.0	
	% within traineevsqual	65.5%	34.5%	100.0%	
	% within InclTraining_grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	65.5%	34.5%	100.0%	

Role * UseCoaching

Crosstab

Count

		UseCoaching		Total
		Yes	No	
Role	TEP	6	37	43
	EP	22	25	47
	SEP	7	9	16
	PEP	7	4	11
	REP	1	1	2
Total		43	76	119

Appendix 16.5 Chi-Square Test (by experience)

yearsexperience * AgreeDef

Chi-Square Tests						
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	.169 ^a	1	.681	1.000	.594	
Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000			
Likelihood Ratio	.163	1	.687	1.000	.594	
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.594	
Linear-by-Linear Association	.168 ^c	1	.682	1.000	.594	.465
N of Valid Cases	119					

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .72.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. The standardized statistic is -.410.

yearsexperience * ExperienceCoaching

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (1- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.804 ^a	1	.005		
Continuity Correction ^b	6.774	1	.009		
Likelihood Ratio	7.930	1	.005		
Fisher's Exact Test				.007	.004
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.738	1	.005		
N of Valid Cases	119				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 21.32.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

yearsexperience * FitsWithEPPpractice

Chi-Square Tests						
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	.589 ^a	1	.443	.652	.403	
Continuity Correction ^b	.085	1	.770			
Likelihood Ratio	.644	1	.422	.652	.403	
Fisher's Exact Test				.652	.403	
Linear-by-Linear Association	.584 ^c	1	.445	.652	.403	.302
N of Valid Cases	119					

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.81.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. The standardized statistic is .764.

yearsexperience * DistinctFromConsultation

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (1- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.102 ^a	1	.749		
Continuity Correction ^b	.007	1	.935		
Likelihood Ratio	.103	1	.748		
Fisher's Exact Test				.816	.473
Linear-by-Linear Association	.101	1	.750		
N of Valid Cases	119				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.67.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

yearsexperience * Positivelmpact

	Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	.010 ^a	1	.919	1.000	.704	
Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000			
Likelihood Ratio	.011	1	.918	1.000	.704	
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.704	
Linear-by-Linear Association	.010 ^c	1	.919	1.000	.704	.448
N of Valid Cases	119					

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.08.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. The standardized statistic is .102.

yearsexperience * NegativeImpact

	Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	3.972 ^a	1	.046	.056	.051	
Continuity Correction ^b	2.768	1	.096			
Likelihood Ratio	3.789	1	.052	.095	.051	
Fisher's Exact Test				.095	.051	
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.939 ^c	1	.047	.056	.051	.039
N of Valid Cases	119					

a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.97.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. The standardized statistic is 1.985.

yearsexperience * FutureInEPPpractice

Chi-Square Tests						
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	3.231 ^a	1	.072	.092	.067	
Continuity Correction ^b	2.113	1	.146			
Likelihood Ratio	3.874	1	.049	.092	.067	
Fisher's Exact Test				.092	.067	
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.204 ^c	1	.073	.092	.067	.058
N of Valid Cases	119					

a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.61.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. The standardized statistic is 1.790.

yearsexperience * IncludedInTraining

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (1- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.531 ^a	1	.466		
Continuity Correction ^b	.279	1	.597		
Likelihood Ratio	.537	1	.464		
Fisher's Exact Test				.549	.300
Linear-by-Linear Association	.527	1	.468		
N of Valid Cases	119				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14.82.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

yearsexperience * UseCoaching

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12.018 ^a	2	.002
Likelihood Ratio	12.448	2	.002
Linear-by-Linear Association	11.825	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	119		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.12.

Appendix 16.6 Chi-Square Tests (by qualification)

traineevsqual * AgreeDef

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	.169 ^a	1	.681	1.000	.594	
Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000			
Likelihood Ratio	.163	1	.687	1.000	.594	
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.594	
Linear-by-Linear Association	.168 ^c	1	.682	1.000	.594	.465
N of Valid Cases	119					

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .72.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. The standardized statistic is .410.

traineevsqual * ExperienceCoaching

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.368 ^a	2	.015
Likelihood Ratio	8.511	2	.014
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.987	1	.005
N of Valid Cases	119		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 13.88.

traineesqual * FitsWithEPPractice

Chi-Square Tests						
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	4.352 ^a	1	.037	.057	.057	
Continuity Correction ^b	2.594	1	.107			
Likelihood Ratio	4.220	1	.040	.158	.057	
Fisher's Exact Test				.057	.057	
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.315 ^c	1	.038	.057	.057	.051
N of Valid Cases	119					

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.81.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. The standardized statistic is 2.077.

traineesqual * DistinctFromConsultation

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (1- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.225 ^a	1	.268		
Continuity Correction ^b	.756	1	.385		
Likelihood Ratio	1.198	1	.274		
Fisher's Exact Test				.342	.192
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.215	1	.270		
N of Valid Cases	119				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.67.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

traineevsqual * Positivelmpact

	Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	1.243 ^a	1	.265	.552	.296	
Continuity Correction ^b	.256	1	.613			
Likelihood Ratio	1.181	1	.277	.552	.296	
Fisher's Exact Test				.296	.296	
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.233 ^c	1	.267	.552	.296	.251
N of Valid Cases	119					

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.08.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. The standardized statistic is 1.110.

traineevsqual * Negativelpact

	Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	.412 ^a	1	.521	.744	.387	
Continuity Correction ^b	.098	1	.754			
Likelihood Ratio	.429	1	.513	.744	.387	
Fisher's Exact Test				.744	.387	
Linear-by-Linear Association	.409 ^c	1	.522	.744	.387	.221
N of Valid Cases	119					

a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.97.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. The standardized statistic is .640.

traineevsqual * FutureInEPPractice

Chi-Square Tests						
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	.910 ^a	1	.340	.493	.266	
Continuity Correction ^b	.372	1	.542			
Likelihood Ratio	.877	1	.349	.493	.266	
Fisher's Exact Test				.493	.266	
Linear-by-Linear Association	.902 ^c	1	.342	.493	.266	.167
N of Valid Cases	119					

- a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.61.
- b. Computed only for a 2x2 table
- c. The standardized statistic is .950.

traineevsqual * IncludedInTraining

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (1- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.226 ^a	1	.634		
Continuity Correction ^b	.076	1	.783		
Likelihood Ratio	.225	1	.635		
Fisher's Exact Test				.690	.390
Linear-by-Linear Association	.224	1	.636		
N of Valid Cases	119				

- a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14.82.
- b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

traineevsqual * UseCoaching

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (1- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	14.354 ^a	1	.000		
Continuity Correction ^b	12.889	1	.000		
Likelihood Ratio	15.637	1	.000		
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	14.233	1	.000		
N of Valid Cases	119				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15.54.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Appendix 16.7 Independent T-tests

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
PositiveImpact	Equal variances assumed	2.324	.130	- 1.975	117	.051	-.28427	.14394	-. .56934	.00079
	Equal variances not assumed			- 2.026	94.150	.046	-.28427	.14030	-. .56284	.00571

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
NegativeImpact	Equal variances assumed	.157	.692	.512	117	.610	.07742	.15116	-.22194	.37678
	Equal variances not assumed			.502	82.362	.617	.07742	.15412	-.22916	.38399

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
NegativeImpact	Equal variances assumed	6.403	.014	1.509	74	.135	.25595	.16958	-.08193	.59384
	Equal variances not assumed			1.737	73.912	.087	.25595	.14733	-.03761	.54952

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
NegativeImpact	Equal variances assumed	.201	.655	.293	89	.770	.05329	.18172	-.30778	.41437
	Equal variances not assumed			.292	85.275	.771	.05329	.18272	-.30998	.41657

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
NegativeImpact	Equal variances assumed	7.084	.010	-1.090	69	.280	-.20266	.18595	-.57362	.16830
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.238	65.708	.220	-.20266	.16370	-.52952	.12420

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
UseCoaching	Equal variances assumed	80.257	.000	4.006	117	.000	.34731	.08670	.17561	.51900
	Equal variances not assumed			4.414	111.856	.000	.34731	.07867	.19142	.50319

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
UseCoaching	Equal variances assumed	12.290	.001	1.986	74	.051	.20536	.10340	-.00067	.41138
	Equal variances not assumed			1.869	46.827	.068	.20536	.10989	-.01573	.42645

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
UseCoaching	Equal variances assumed	25.820	.000	3.678	89	.000	.34738	.09446	.15970	.53507
	Equal variances not assumed			3.629	79.318	.001	.34738	.09573	.15684	.53792

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
UseCoaching	Equal variances assumed	1.374	.245	1.165	69	.248	.14203	.12186	-.10108	.38514
	Equal variances not assumed			1.169	58.453	.247	.14203	.12148	-.10110	.38516

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
ExperienceCoaching	Equal variances assumed	1.393	.240	-3.235	117	.002	-.74204	.22941	1.19637	-.28771
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.326	94.758	.001	-.74204	.22311	1.18498	-.29911

Appendix 16.8 Tukey HSD Tests

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: NegativeImpact
Tukey HSD

(I) yearsexperience	(J) yearsexperience	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
In training	Worked 0-8 years	.2560	.18783	.364	-.1900	.7019
	Worked 9-15+ years	.0533	.16586	.945	-.3405	.4471
Worked 0-8 years	In training	-.2560	.18783	.364	-.7019	.1900
	Worked 9-15+ years	-.2027	.19181	.543	-.6581	.2527
Worked 9-15+ years	In training	-.0533	.16586	.945	-.4471	.3405
	Worked 0-8 years	.2027	.19181	.543	-.2527	.6581

Based on observed means.

The error term is Mean Square(Error) = .624.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: UseCoaching
Tukey HSD

(I) yearsexperience	(J) yearsexperience	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
In training	Worked 0-8 years	.2054	.10971	.151	-.0551	.4658
	Worked 9-15+ years	.3474*	.09687	.001	.1174	.5774
Worked 0-8 years	In training	-.2054	.10971	.151	-.4658	.0551
	Worked 9-15+ years	.1420	.11203	.416	-.1240	.4080
Worked 9-15+ years	In training	-.3474*	.09687	.001	-.5774	-.1174
	Worked 0-8 years	-.1420	.11203	.416	-.4080	.1240

Based on observed means.

The error term is Mean Square(Error) = .213.

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: ExperienceCoaching

Tukey HSD

(I) yearsexperience	(J) yearsexperience	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
In training	Worked 0-8 years	-.3065	.28538	.532	-.9841	.3710
	Worked 9-15+ years	-.8639*	.25199	.002	-1.4621	-.2656
Worked 0-8 years	In training	.3065	.28538	.532	-.3710	.9841
	Worked 9-15+ years	-.5573	.29143	.140	-1.2492	.1346
Worked 9-15+ years	In training	.8639*	.25199	.002	.2656	1.4621
	Worked 0-8 years	.5573	.29143	.140	-.1346	1.2492

Based on observed means.

The error term is Mean Square(Error) = 1.440.

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Appendix 16.9 Chi-Square Tests (by experience in using coaching)

Inexperiencedvexperienced * AgreeDef_Grouped

Inexperiencedvexperienced * AgreeDef_Grouped Crosstabulation

		AgreeDef_Grouped		Total	
		Low agreement	High agreement		
Inexperienced v experienced	Inexperienced in use of coaching	Count	1	86	87
		Expected Count	1.5	85.5	87.0
		% within Inexperiencedvexperienced	1.1%	98.9%	100.0%
		% within AgreeDef_Grouped	50.0%	73.5%	73.1%
		% of Total	0.8%	72.3%	73.1%
	Experienced in use of coaching	Count	1	31	32
		Expected Count	.5	31.5	32.0
		% within Inexperiencedvexperienced	3.1%	96.9%	100.0%
		% within AgreeDef_Grouped	50.0%	26.5%	26.9%
		% of Total	0.8%	26.1%	26.9%
Total	Count	2	117	119	
	Expected Count	2.0	117.0	119.0	
	% within Inexperiencedvexperienced	1.7%	98.3%	100.0%	
	% within AgreeDef_Grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	1.7%	98.3%	100.0%	

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	.553 ^a	1	.457	1.000	.467	
Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000			
Likelihood Ratio	.490	1	.484	1.000	.467	
Fisher's Exact Test				.467	.467	
Linear-by-Linear Association	.548 ^c	1	.459	1.000	.467	.397
N of Valid Cases	119					

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .54.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. The standardized statistic is -.740.

Inexperiencedvexperienced * FitsWithEPPractice_Grouped

Inexperiencedvexperienced * FitsWithEPPractice_Grouped Crosstabulation

		FitsWithEPPractice_Grouped			
			High agreement	Total	
		Low agreement			
Inexperienced v experienced	Inexperienced in use of coaching	Count	5	82	87
		Expected Count	3.7	83.3	87.0
		% within Inexperiencedvexperi enced	5.7%	94.3%	100.0 %
		% within FitsWithEPPractice_ Grouped	100.0%	71.9%	73.1%
		% of Total	4.2%	68.9%	73.1%
	Experienced in use of coaching	Count	0	32	32
		Expected Count	1.3	30.7	32.0
		% within Inexperiencedvexperi enced	0.0%	100.0%	100.0 %
		% within FitsWithEPPractice_ Grouped	0.0%	28.1%	26.9%
		% of Total	0.0%	26.9%	26.9%

Total	Count	5	114	119
	Expected Count	5.0	114.0	119.0
	% within Inexperiencedvexperi enced	4.2%	95.8%	100.0 %
	% within FitsWithEPPpractice_ Grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0 %
	% of Total	4.2%	95.8%	100.0 %

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	1.920 ^a	1	.166	.322	.202	
Continuity Correction ^b	.757	1	.384			
Likelihood Ratio	3.212	1	.073	.221	.202	
Fisher's Exact Test				.322	.202	
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.904 ^c	1	.168	.322	.202	.202
N of Valid Cases	119					

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.34.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. The standardized statistic is 1.380.

Inexperiencedvexperienced * DistinctFromConsultation_Grouped

Inexperiencedvexperienced * DistinctFromConsultation_Grouped Crosstabulation

		DistinctFromConsultation_Grouped		Total	
		Low agreement	High agreement		
Inexperienced v experienced	Inexperienced in use of coaching	Count	19	68	87
		Expected Count	17.5	69.5	87.0
		% within Inexperiencedvexperienced	21.8%	78.2%	100.0%
		% within DistinctFromConsultation_Grouped	79.2%	71.6%	73.1%
		% of Total	16.0%	57.1%	73.1%
	Experienced in use of coaching	Count	5	27	32
		Expected Count	6.5	25.5	32.0
		% within Inexperiencedvexperienced	15.6%	84.4%	100.0%
		% within DistinctFromConsultation_Grouped	20.8%	28.4%	26.9%
		% of Total	4.2%	22.7%	26.9%
Total	Count	24	95	119	
	Expected Count	24.0	95.0	119.0	
	% within Inexperiencedvexperienced	20.2%	79.8%	100.0%	
	% within DistinctFromConsultation_Grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	20.2%	79.8%	100.0%	

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (1- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.561 ^a	1	.454		
Continuity Correction ^b	.242	1	.623		
Likelihood Ratio	.584	1	.445		
Fisher's Exact Test				.608	.319
Linear-by-Linear Association	.556	1	.456		
N of Valid Cases	119				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.45.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Inexperiencedvexperienced * PosImpact_Grouped

Inexperiencedvexperienced * PosImpact_Grouped Crosstabulation

		PosImpact_Grouped		Total	
		Low agreement	High agreement		
Inexperienced v experienced	Inexperienced in use of coaching	Count	2	85	87
		Expected Count	2.2	84.8	87.0
		% within Inexperiencedvexperienced	2.3%	97.7%	100.0%
		% within PosImpact_Grouped	66.7%	73.3%	73.1%
		% of Total	1.7%	71.4%	73.1%
		Count	1	31	32
	Experienced in use of coaching	Expected Count	.8	31.2	32.0
		% within Inexperiencedvexperienced	3.1%	96.9%	100.0%
		% within PosImpact_Grouped	33.3%	26.7%	26.9%
		% of Total	0.8%	26.1%	26.9%
		Count	3	116	119
		Total	Count	3	116

	Expected Count	3.0	116.0	119.0
	% within	2.5%	97.5%	100.0%
	Inexperiencedvexperienced			
	% within	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	PosImpact_Grouped			
	% of Total	2.5%	97.5%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	.065 ^a	1	.799	1.000	.613	
Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000			
Likelihood Ratio	.062	1	.803	1.000	.613	
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.613	
Linear-by-Linear Association	.064 ^c	1	.800	1.000	.613	.437
N of Valid Cases	119					

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .81.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. The standardized statistic is -.254.

Inexperiencedvexperienced * NegImpact_Grouped

Inexperiencedvexperienced * NegImpact_Grouped Crosstabulation

		NegImpact_Grouped		Total	
		Low agreement	High agreement		
Inexperienced v experienced	Inexperienced in use of coaching	Count	79	8	87
		Expected Count	79.0	8.0	87.0
		% within	90.8%	9.2%	100.0%
		Inexperiencedvexperienced			
		% within	73.1%	72.7%	73.1%
	NegImpact_Grouped				
	% of Total	66.4%	6.7%	73.1%	
Experienced in use of coaching	Count	29	3	32	
	Expected Count	29.0	3.0	32.0	

	% within Inexperiencedvexperienced	90.6%	9.4%	100.0%
	% within NegImpact_Grouped	26.9%	27.3%	26.9%
	% of Total	24.4%	2.5%	26.9%
Total	Count	108	11	119
	Expected Count	108.0	11.0	119.0
	% within Inexperiencedvexperienced	90.8%	9.2%	100.0%
	% within NegImpact_Grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	90.8%	9.2%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests						
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	.001 ^a	1	.976	1.000	.611	
Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000			
Likelihood Ratio	.001	1	.976	1.000	.611	
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.611	
Linear-by-Linear Association	.001 ^c	1	.976	1.000	.611	.275
N of Valid Cases	119					

a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.96.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. The standardized statistic is .030.

Inexperiencedvexperienced * Future_Grouped

Inexperiencedvexperienced * Future_Grouped Crosstabulation

		Future_Grouped		Total	
		Low agreement	High agreement		
Inexperienced v experienced	Inexperienced in use of coaching	Count	8	79	87
		Expected Count	7.3	79.7	87.0
		% within Inexperiencedvexperienced	9.2%	90.8%	100.0%
		% within Future_Grouped	80.0%	72.5%	73.1%
		% of Total	6.7%	66.4%	73.1%
	Experienced in use of coaching	Count	2	30	32
		Expected Count	2.7	29.3	32.0
		% within Inexperiencedvexperienced	6.3%	93.8%	100.0%
		% within Future_Grouped	20.0%	27.5%	26.9%
		% of Total	1.7%	25.2%	26.9%
Total	Count	10	109	119	
	Expected Count	10.0	109.0	119.0	
	% within Inexperiencedvexperienced	8.4%	91.6%	100.0%	
	% within Future_Grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	8.4%	91.6%	100.0%	

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	Point Probability
Pearson Chi-Square	.264 ^a	1	.608	.728	.464	
Continuity Correction ^b	.020	1	.888			
Likelihood Ratio	.279	1	.597	.728	.464	
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.464	
Linear-by-Linear Association	.261 ^c	1	.609	.728	.464	.272
N of Valid Cases	119					

a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.69.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. The standardized statistic is .511.

Inexperiencedvexperienced * InclTraining_grouped

Inexperiencedvexperienced * InclTraining_grouped Crosstabulation

		InclTraining_grouped		Total	
		Low agreement	High agreement		
Inexperienced v experienced	Inexperienced in use of coaching	Count	52	35	87
		Expected Count	57.0	30.0	87.0
		% within Inexperiencedvexperienced	59.8%	40.2%	100.0%
		% within InclTraining_grouped	66.7%	85.4%	73.1%
		% of Total	43.7%	29.4%	73.1%
	Experienced in use of coaching	Count	26	6	32
		Expected Count	21.0	11.0	32.0
		% within Inexperiencedvexperienced	81.3%	18.8%	100.0%
		% within InclTraining_grouped	33.3%	14.6%	26.9%
		% of Total	21.8%	5.0%	26.9%
Total	Count	78	41	119	
	Expected Count	78.0	41.0	119.0	
	% within Inexperiencedvexperienced	65.5%	34.5%	100.0%	
	% within InclTraining_grouped	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	65.5%	34.5%	100.0%	

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2- sided)	Exact Sig. (1- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.780 ^a	1	.029		
Continuity Correction ^b	3.876	1	.049		
Likelihood Ratio	5.123	1	.024		
Fisher's Exact Test				.031	.022
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.740	1	.029		
N of Valid Cases	119				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.03.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Global Themes	Main Themes	Emergent Themes	Initial Codes			
Working with others	Collaboration	Joint working	Co-construction Facilitating			
		Boundaries	Ethical boundaries Therapeutic boundaries			
		Working together	Collaborative tool Relationship-building			
		Informs / is part of wider role of EP	Broader focus and approach USP of role			
	Focus on the coachee	Understanding of the coachee		Coachee-led Developing understanding Social constructs		
			Benefits for coachee	Empowering Wellbeing Positive		
				Personalised / individualised	Identity-based work Narrative approach Personal construct psychology Client-led Constructionism Individualised	
		Counselling			Counselling skills	
		Client benefits	Developing client understanding Develops confidence for the client Empowering Opportunity for the client (space)			
			Relationship		Relationship equality	Meaningful helping relationship Relationship-focused Non-expert
				Building the relationship		Developing relationship Building relationship with client
		Relationship issues				Dependency Emotional transference
		Use of coaching		Lack of consensus in understanding and use	Multiple definitions	No one definition
					Individual choice in tools	Developed own structures
	Theoretical knowledge		Awareness of/do not use models			
	Determining factors		Depends on outcome focus Only if long(er) term			
	Buy in		School buy in Client buy in			

		EP issues	Individual EP preference
			Thinking on the spot
			EP confidence
			Insufficient initial training
	Duration of coaching engagements	Duration	One-off coaching
			Single session
		Time	Time
	Specificity	Specific use	Managerial
			Parent coaching
			Senior leadership coaching
			Student coaching
			Supervisory coaching
			Teacher coaching
		Not formally used 'coaching'	Used principles of coaching
		Specific model / framework	ENABLE framework
			GROW model
			IGROW model
			OSCAR model
			Reality therapy model (WDEP)
			SPACE model
			TGROW model
Transactional analysis			
Transtheoretical model			
Structure in practice	Provides a framework / structure		
	(lack of) Fluidity in following structures		
Training needs	Confidence		
	CPD		
	Included in training		
	Would like to know more		
	Optional learning opportunity		
	Curiosity		
Theory	Choice theory		
	Motivation theory		
	Self-determination theory		
	Self-efficacy theory		
With other approaches	In combination / part of other approaches	Combined with observations	
		Part of consultation	
		Part of report writing	
		Part of training process	
	Holistic approach		
	Approach	ACT approaches	
		CBT approaches	
Growth mindset			
Humanistic approach			

			Motivational interviewing
			Person-centred approach
			Positive psychology approach
			Reflecting team approach
			Rogerian principles
			Solution-focused approach
			VIG approach
		Type of psychology	Goal-oriented psychology
			Personal construct psychology
			Use psychological techniques
		Consultation-based approach	Caplan's mental health consultation
			Wagner consultation approach
		Coaching is another tool	Toolkit analogy
		With / as part of consultation	Consultation skills
Fit with practice	Builds on consultation skills		
	Should be integral to practice		
	Need opportunities to use		
Another tool	Toolbox		
	Discursive tool		
Outcomes and Impact	Coachee benefits	For an effect	Long-term impact
			Solution-focused basis
		Containment	Containment
		Forward thinking	Solution-focused
			Solution-oriented
			Outcome-focused
			Future-focused
	Motivation	Theories of motivation	
	Changes	Client changes	
		Systemic changes	
		Overall paradigm shift	
	Benefits	Professional learning	Enables learning
			Insight into client's experience
			Influences thinking
Listening skills			
Awareness		Lack of awareness	
		Preparation and expectations	
Will be used more		Increasing prevalence	
Beneficial	Provides clarity		
	Structured		
	Empowering		

		Beneficial for EPS	Trading opportunity	
			Use in service	
	Evaluation	Before and after		Before and after
				Re-observation
				Scaling
		Formal post-involvement		Evaluation form
				Formal evaluation session
		Informal evaluation process		Informal questioning / discussion

Main Themes	Emergent Themes	How and why is coaching used by educational psychologists?	What specific techniques of coaching are used?	How do those who use coaching experience it in practice?	What other aspects of psychological practice are used alongside coaching?
Challenges in coaching	Barriers				
	Boundaries				
The future of coaching	Growth in coaching practice				
	Important for EP practice				
Varied use of coaching	Professional autonomy				
	Discrete sessions				
	Structures				
	Groups worked with				
Central factors in coaching	Importance of the relationship				
	Wider focus on issues				
	Focuses on the client				
	Focus on the future / ways forward				
	Measuring the impact of coaching				
Outcomes of coaching	Enables changes				
	Benefits of coaching				
	Understanding				
Coaching is not a distinct approach	Coaching is part of other practices				
	Links to consultation				
	Reference to models and frameworks				
	Reference to other psychological approaches				
	Reference to theory				
	An additional tool				



Dear Sophie

RE: Feedback on doctoral research findings

Thank you for presenting the findings of your doctoral research "Exploring professionals' views and experiences of coaching in educational psychology" to some of the Educational Psychologists and Senior Assistant Psychologists of EdPsychs Ltd on the 30th November 2018.

We very much appreciated hearing about your findings and the feedback received from the psychologists about your session was very positive. The psychologists discussed your findings at length, and there were many areas for us to think about.

As you know, EdPsychs Ltd is committed to promoting the link between coaching and educational psychology in our schools, especially in our systemic and community work, and your presentation and findings contributed to our thinking and how we will support schools in the future. Thank you again.

Best wishes,

John.

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